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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

SOCIOLOGICAL BACKGROUND OF MODERN ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION IN CANADA

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
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PART I

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS RELATING
TO EDUCATION



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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this thesis is to analyse the sociological factors influencing the formulation of modern educational theory. Particular application of the discussion involved is made to the programmes of study for elementary schools in Canada. This application is made in the hope that some facts concerning the backgrounds of our modern curriculum construction can be organized, and that some problems in this field of study be indicated. The method employed in the study is analysis of the elements concerned with philosophical interpretation. No attempt is made to rate the programmes of study individually with the view to comparison.¹ In so far as their philosophies are analysed, it is done generally with an eye to the trend of educational philosophy in Canada as a whole. Comparisons and contrasts in details are made for the purpose of illustration in the general field.

The plan of the discussion has two parts, as follows:

Part I: Sociological Concepts Relating to Education.

Part II: The Application of Sociological Concepts in

Educational Theory and Practice.

It is intended that Part I shall be an outline and analysis of background-problems rather than a mere "cross-section of some prevailing popular or professional belief".² Regarding

1

Good, Carter V., Barr, A. S., Scates, Douglas E.: Methodology in Educational Research, New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938, p. 697.

2

Bush, Robert P.: Research in Education, University of London, Press, Ltd., 1932. p. 47.

the treatment of the problem in Part II, the remarks in the first paragraph are explanatory of its method and purpose.

A reason for studying the sociological backgrounds of our elementary curricula is expressed in the following statement by Leo J. Bruekner:

"....In recent years the approach to the study of curricula has definitely shifted from an analysis of the contents of the areas of subject matter to the study of developmental processes (for instance increase in height and weight) or as a result of influences of the environment, more especially educational environment...." ¹

It is stated in other quarters that the view of education is broadening. Hart expresses this development of educational theory as follows: "School plays some part in the education of each of us today, but so does every other social institution, and the whole life of the community...." ²

The above-quoted statements appear to be in harmony with the trend of educational sociology in so far as they indicate fields of interest and study. As a background for the discussion to follow, the meaning of educational sociology is here accepted as that branch of sociology "concerned with the study of the educational process from the point of view of its social purposes and the social conditions that determine its efficiency" ³. The function of educational sociology as well, can be stated briefly. It is the function

¹ Elementary School Journal, January, 1940, p. 385.

² Hart, Joseph K.: A Social Interpretation of Education, N.Y. Henry Holt, 1929, p. xiv

³ Payne, E. George: Readings in Educational Sociology, N.Y., Prentice-Hall Inc., 1932, Vol. 1, p. 25.

pertaining to the relation of the school to the social life of the community and the educational influences of the community. The following summary of this function by Payne is adequate for our present purpose:

"One of the problems of educational sociology...is to develop means for determining social change through education, and to place the emphasis upon the subject matter of the curriculum, the method of school instruction and the school organization for the purpose of bringing about changes in social behavior." 1

This exposition of the function of educational sociology suggests merely one task of the sociologist, but it is one of far-reaching implications and covers a background sufficiently inclusive for the topics discussed in the following chapters.

Some preliminary assumptions and some amplification of the above introductory discussion can be made at this point.

Educational progress as expressed in school curricula today results largely from changing concepts of individual and social needs. The most immediate influence upon educational theory and practice appears to be the tendency to formulate educational objectives in the accordance with intrinsic values to be sought in education, the greatest emphasis being placed upon the practical needs of children.² The evolution of educational theory is being influenced, therefore, by the belief that children themselves

1

Ibid., p. 32.

2

New Instructional Practices of Promise, Twelfth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors of Instruction, N.E.A., Washington, D.C., 1940, p. 192.

are more important than the skills they acquire. One result of this trend is the coming into favour of the "experience curriculum."

Modern theory appears to be affecting the educational programmes in Canada.¹ There are recent changes in administrative and supervisory techniques, changes in the equipping of school plants,² as well as increased attention paid to the improvement of relationships between the school and the home and the co-ordination of all educational agencies of the community.³

Parallel progress in these various branches of education is due to the fact that knowledge of childhood and knowledge of environmental influences are basically correlated. In the modern view of education neither the physical nor the psychological factors alone are sufficient for an understanding of educational growth. The sociology of childhood involves a (study) co-ordinated knowledge of the child and his environment. This means that the function of the school is a complicated one. In the community it is the task of the school to co-ordinate the influences of various educational agencies,⁴ for the benefit of the child, and the

¹ Sandiford, Peter: "Curriculum Revision in Canada", The School, Toronto, February, 1938, pp. 472-480.

² School Progress, Toronto, July, 1939, pp. 8, 9.

³ Brown, Francis J. : Sociology of Childhood, N.Y., Prentice Hall, Inc., 1939. pp. 275-291.

⁴ Melby, Ernest O. in Newer Instructional Practices of Promise, op. cit. p. 35.

school must, besides, neutralize and offset undesirable educational influences.¹

The general assumption is that the study of the child in his environment is of increased importance in social science.² To a degree theory has prompted action: improvement and extension of institutions for the promotion of all-round educational growth of children form an important part of social service programmes today. It is the aim in the study of educational sociology to discover the basis of promoting security and happiness and moral growth for the individual child. In an address to the White House Conference on Child Welfare in April, 1939, President Roosevelt of the United States referred to the sociological problem of childhood in the following inclusive words:

"....It is not enough to consider what a democratic society must provide. We must look at our civilization through the eyes of our children. If we can state in simple language some of the basic necessities of childhood, we shall see more clearly the issues which challenge our intelligence... We make the assumption that a happy child should live in a home where he will find warmth, food and affection; that his parents take care of him should he fall ill; that at school he will find the teachers and the tools needed for an education; that when he has grown up there will be a job for him and that he will some day establish his own home...." 3

¹ Brown, op. cit., pp. 306, 332.

² Ibid., p. 3

³ School and Society, Vol. 49, May, 1939, pp. 590, 591.

This statement of President Roosevelt's represents the broader social and economic aspect of child well-being. There is a more specifically educational aspect presented by Witty and Skinner as follows:

"....if attempts to help the child prove truly beneficial they must be viewed as part of a larger and more significant problem of so modifying school practices that all children will be led through a sequence of successful, happy and meaningful experiences to adequate adulthood.."1

It cannot be supposed that educationists can lose sight of either of these aspects of the situation. They are factors relating theory and practice in the educational field.

1

Witty, Paul A. and Skinner, Chas. E. (Editors): Mental Hygiene in Education, N. Y., Farrar and Rhinehart, Inc., 1936, p. 6.

CHAPTER II

THE CHARACTER AND RESULTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE.

In this chapter there is an outline-discussion of some general features and results of social change in the modern world. The purpose of the outline is to present (1) a background for the sociological view of education and (2) to indicate the nature of the problems of social control through education. It is hoped that the familiarity of the material used will not lessen its significance for the present purpose. The writer believes that sociological facts and theories that have become commonplace in current literature, are worthy of increased and renewed consideration

Even a cursory view of modern social trends reveals a striking variety of fundamental relationships concerned in social change. One is reminded frequently that the complexity of modern life is its outstanding characteristic. Economic stress is a fact of fundamental importance, and modern social development is marked by apparent rapidity in social change unprecedented in history. Mere change, however, would not be peculiar to this, or any age. Social backgrounds have "always been changing."¹ Pate of social change is a matter of greatest concern for educational and social leaders.

¹ Schorling, P. and McClusky, New York: Education and Social Trends, N. Y., Yonkers-on-Hudson, p.1.

Confusion and frustration in modern life are said to be indicated by certain symptoms: loss of or change of standards in morality, for example. It is claimed also that the influence of science has had harmful effects upon morality and thinking in the modern world because the significance of the scientific method has been imperfectly comprehended by people generally. Older standards of belief have been broken down and have not been adequately replaced by desirable intellectual and ethical qualities of mind essential for the new age.¹ It is suggested in many quarters that the granting of greater democratic freedom to the school would strengthen public concern for the welfare of society. The problems concerned in this suggestion are discussed in Chapters III, IV, and V.

In the present chapter the following topics are discussed:

1. Problems Created by Modern Social Change.
2. The Problem of Integration.
3. Educational Objectives and the Public Mind.
4. Economic Stresses and Results.
5. Science and Social Change.

¹ Saucier, W. A. : Introduction to Modern Views of Education, New York, Ginn and Company, 1937, p. 64.

1. PROBLEMS CREATED BY SOCIAL CHANGE.

" While the fundamental problem of the teacher has been to guide the pupil into desirable adjustment to a rapidly growing world, the task is certainly much more difficult today..."¹ Forty years ago John Dewey wrote the following words:

" I make no apology for dwelling at length upon the social changes....Those I shall mention are writ that he who runs may read. The change that....overshadows and even controls all the others is the industrial one--the application of science resulting in great inventions that have utilized the forces of nature on a vast and impressive scale. Even as its feeble beginnings, this change is not much more than a century old; in many of its most important aspects it falls within the span of those now living. One can hardly believe that there has been a revolution in all history, so rapid , so extensive, so complete;...That this revolution should not affect education in some other than a formal and superficial fashion is inconceivable...."2

John Dewey has lived to see the revolution of which he wrote unfold.

The background of sociological and educational problems can be thought of in rather well-defined but general terms. Because of the simplicity and clarity of the analysis of this background given by Schorling and McClusky, their³ points are submitted at this point:

1. The widening gap of our wants and our ability to supply them.
2. The weakening of controls for the integration of personality exercised by religion and the home.
3. The concentration of economic control without corresponding acceptance of responsibility.
4. The shifting character of populations

¹ Schorling and McClusky, op.cit., p. 2.

² Dewey, John: The School and Society, University of Chicago Press, 1899 and 1915, pp. 5, 6.

³ Schorling and McClusky, op. cit., p. 2

5. The struggle for international co-operation.
6. The increasing complexity and strain of modern life to which the individual must adjust himself.
7. The clash of world political ideas and ideals with its consequent threat to democracy.
8. The influence of machines and techniques on the number and types of occupations.
9. The widening gap between the expert and the masses.
10. The growing conviction of people generally that education is essential.
11. The use of the school by pressure groups.

These social problems result from political and economic stresses behind which, in diverse ways, is the movement of science and technology. It is an aim in Part II of this thesis to indicate the effect of these problems upon the formulation of educational objectives.

The subject of dissention between the leaders of the Progressive education movement and the Realists¹ is how education should function to improve society. The leaders of the former school indicate that they have confidence in teachers' powers to promote social adjustment in direct and practical ways through education, and that they believe social reform will come, and should come, as a direct result of education. That is, society should be a function of education.² The educational Realists believe contrarily that education is a function of society in the sense that the former is inevitably controlled by the demands of the social order. In Chapter IV, below, the philosophies of these two schools of educational thought are discussed in sufficient detail to

1

Breed, F. S.: Education and the New Realism, New York, Macmillan, 1939, Chapter IV.

2

References to this theory are made in Chapter IV.

indicate their general ideas and trends. Evidence would seem to show that there are bases for future compromise on the part of the respective leaders of these schools.

II INTEGRATION AS AN EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM.

It is emphasized by numerous educationists that the complex nature of modern social change makes the integration of personality a major problem of education. This belief was expressed frequently at the International Conference of the New Education Fellowship at Nice in 1933. One such expression reads in part as follows:

"....the first task of the educator should be to help the child to forge this new intellectual tool....It is of little help to give the child further information..... How has the success of science been achieved? Not by mere accumulation of facts and experiences, but by the mind that has been able to connect one fact with the other."1

The problem of adjustment in human relationships might be compared unfavorably with that of applying the theory of physical science.

The problem of social integration in relation to education is of especial interest to the Progressive educationist, for he looks upon social development as a proper function of education. Professor Bode expresses this belief as follows:

"We can no longer depend upon external conditions. Our continued democracy of life will depend upon our own power of character and intelligence in using the resources

1
Pawson, Wyatt (Reporter): "A New World in the Making", London, New Education Fellowship, 1933.

at hand for a society which is not so much planned as planning a society in which the constructive use of the experimental method is completely naturalized..."¹

This statement indicates that the complex nature of the modern world calls for continuous adjustment of individual life, and since the individual is a unit of society, society as a whole must undergo constant phases of active adjustment based upon experimental experiences. Professor Bode's statement, however, leaves fundamental questions unanswered, such as: In what fields can social experiment be carried out? What are the results of social and economic experiment on a large scale? How adaptable is democracy to the carrying out of social experiments? To what extent can experimental activities within educational institutions be utilized in the wider social sphere? The Progressive view of the function of education implies the necessity for courageous policies in education. Suggestions for definite lines of action and experiment, however, are not at all apparent in theoretical expressions, though the recognition of the educational problems arising from complex social development are given first place in the minds of these educational leaders.

Modern demands upon education have led to more thorough conceptions of integration. There is seen a need for bringing about integration in all phases of life. Lester Dix writes as follows:

"The existence of social life demands a minimal

¹Kilpatrick, William R. (Editor): The Educational Frontier, New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933. p. 65.

unity of habits, ideas and beliefs shared within the group and built upon an understanding that the self and its social milieu are actually interdependent at all points and mutual in their evolution....it (the self) must also be able to look beyond the various social environments as they currently exist. It must be a creative contribution to social life in the direction of constantly greater satisfaction of human needs and ideals..."¹

It is admitted that integration has been overworked in educational writings. Perhaps that is why its full meaning should be examined in very broad terms. It would seem true, as Dix points out, that integration must be "examined in its broadest connotation--that is, against its complementary principle in life, growth and evolution-- the principle of differentiation".² It should be realized first, that integration is a part of the basic processes of nature, in the inevitable connections of time and place. In this discussion the term integration is taken to mean coherence, the logical coherence of all phases of life, the most important application for education being the coherence of elements in individual and social life.

The complex nature of social change has effected broader educational objectives and has increased the importance of the teacher's role in community education. Progress in the technical field has, in turn, tended to increase the gap between the expert and the common man in both social and

¹

Dix, Lester: A Charter for Progressive Education, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939, pp. 24, 25.

²

Ibid, p. 20.

material sciences. Professor Paup puts the latter point as follows:

"To be satisfactory, culture must fix its roots deep in our past, must find its ways and means realistically within the limits and possibilities of our technical age..."¹

The same point is made by Schorling and McClusky in these terms:

"The major problem of the schools and perhaps the press is to bridge the gap between the expert and the masses. We need to humanize knowledge, to de-verbalize the curriculum, and to present the simple principles...that affect citizenship..."²

Elaboration of the details of social change would be a monumental task, but certain basic factors may be briefly noted. The more obvious ones are: (1) intellectual advance and growth of human speculation, (2) the rapid accumulation of scientific inventions coupled with the development of technical skill through training and (3) practical utilization of the powers of nature. These factors of human progress have assumed a peculiar historical significance with the advance of science and technology. The chief educational result of this is a marked increased necessity for training of youth for better adjustment in many spheres. Destructive human crises indicate the failure of educational forces in fundamental respects. It is apparent that education should be a factor in guidance which will include in its proper course guidance in social and economic facts.

¹The Educational Frontier, op. cit., p. 73.

²Schorling and McClusky, op. cit., pp. 124, 125.

The increasing number of human wants in the modern world concerns all aspects of life, intellectual, emotional and material. Competition in the profitable endeavor to satisfy wants has, in turn, led to advertising to the point of exploitation¹ of all susceptible traits and emotions. Emotions are studied and played upon; fads and modes are changed to create new wants. The results of such advertising are surely destructive in many instances and the need for counter-educational influences great. The development of intellectual self-control suggests itself as a chief objective for the school. Bias created through the use of selfish propaganda is likely to be a fundamental hindrance to the progress of individual and social adjustment in a complex social order. Slavson expresses this point as follows:

"A liberal approach is not emotionally charged. It is a disposition to examine new ideas in new ways. These are accepted or rejected on the basis of merit rather than on emotional bias or selfish advantage. The intelligent person is one who strives to counteract this bias by reducing the emotional charge and thus allowing reflection and objective evaluation..."²

Education for life is no mechanical manoeuvre, however, and the laying of foundations for sane, clear-sighted social control in the way suggested by Slavson is an ultimate

¹ Saucier, op. cit., pp. 34, 35.

² Slavson, S. B.: Character Education in A Democracy, New York, Association Press, 1939, p. 17

educational aim, the realization of which requires much foundational work. In such work the training of the emotions is a major task. It is hoped that education today can remove some of the emotional confusion wrought by the varied demands made upon the ingenuity and loyalties of the individual.

It is difficult to interpret school curricula in the classroom in terms of ultimate objectives. It was stated recently by the Chief Inspector of Schools for British Columbia¹ that the publication of a school curriculum in keeping with modern educational aims does not bring immediate response from a large body of teachers. He stated, more specifically, that the inception of the new "Programme of Studies" had not resulted in the practice of an activity programme in the British Columbia schools generally. The scope for co-operative work among the members of a school staff and the full significance of integration in the working out of school activities has not been clearly seen or adequately practised. Industrial arts, for example, lose much effectiveness by the pursuit of work in that subject unrelated to vocabulary studies and social studies. The carrying out of an integrated programme at school appears to require skill and courage seldom found together. In this matter traditions in both the practice of teaching and in

¹ Dr. H. B. King, Chief Inspector of Schools, spoke of this difficulty to an open meeting of the Elementary teachers of British Columbia at the general convention of B. C. Teachers in April, 1941.

administrative tendencies are hindering influences and are problems in themselves.

III EDUCATIONAL PURPOSE AND THE PUBLIC MIND.

As we noted in the last section, confusion of thought and action in modern life are said to arise from the clash of demands made upon the individual as a member of society. Propaganda and education are confused and intermingled. Then, the clash of political ideals adds to social and individual confusion by forcing before the public mind half truths, thereby discouraging clear thought and clear vision.

But if educational objectives were clear, rapid social change would create difficult problems in the field of educational guidance. Education tends to be slow in overtaking the practical needs of the social order. This tendency is referred to as "lag", and it is claimed by Progressivists as being the result of undue conservatism on the part of educationists and to the influence of tradition in general. Judd writes to this point as follows:

"tradition is an unsafe guide in a changing society, because values which were once important disappear. The school curriculum should be flexible enough for new demands whenever the social order of which the school is a part, leaves traditional values behind. The curriculum is, in fact, very slow to change; like all social institutions, it resists innovation..." 2

1

The Educational Frontier, op. cit., p. 75.

2

Judd, Charles E. : Education and Social Progress, New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934, p. 52.

It might be stated, however, that the problem of adapting the school curriculum to modern and changing social needs has at least been recognised. Commenting upon the general character of curricular revision in Canada, Peter Sandiford wrote in 1938 concerning revised curricula in Canada:

"These revisions are based upon a new conception of education, explicitly stated as the development of character and citizenship and the provision for pupils of stimulating environment in which their mutual tendencies will be directed into useful abilities and desirable attitudes..."¹

Respecting the progressive tendency in Canadian educational reform, Sandiford adds a word of warning, and expresses admiration for the past efficiency of Canadian educators.

"One hopes," he writes, "that the insistence upon the development of individual personalities will not become so pronounced that the traditional thoroughness of our education will be sacrificed."² Sandiford's exposition is an admission that Canadian education has broken with tradition in so far as curricula are concerned. We see in his statement, also, evidence of reaction to "progressive" reforms which would lessen the thoroughness of school training.

1

Sandiford, Peter: "Curricular Revision in Canada," The School, Toronto, February, 1938, p. 475.

2

Sandiford, Ibid.

If confusion is found in the minds of educational theorists, it is perhaps more marked in the minds of youth and parents, though some practical and clear thinking is evidenced in the increasingly co-operative attitudes in both the latter cases. There is a lingering faith in a "magic" value of book learning as such. This faith, it would seem, is usually based upon the belief that academic education will raise youth to a higher standard of life through more dignified channels than those through which their parents laboured. Types of work are associated, perhaps falsely, with educational privilege. Even if this assumption were true, its literal interpretation would lead inevitably to disappointing results unless great stress were placed upon individual guidance based upon preferences and capabilities. Both elementary and secondary education have functions in the solution of this very important problem. The tragedy of misconception is more apparent, however, in students of the secondary school level. The following passage from Josephine Lawrence's novel, "If I Have Four Apples," is vividly illustrative of misconceptions regarding the purpose of education:

"...Up stairs the two children still drudged confusedly over the vast assignments of homework, a mechanical process, the reason for which eluded them completely,

since neither they nor their teachers had ever succeeded in relating it to any present or future need in their lives. Rose (the mother) ironing in the kitchen, liked to see her son and daughter at their books. The scholastic atmosphere at once comforted and reassured her. In the stacks of books, in the untidy piles of paper, she read a promise that the tragedy of her own inadequate education would not be visited upon the second generation. Neither she nor Bentner (the husband) had finished the eighth grade, but that didn't matter now. 'Isn't it wonderful!' she sometimes said to her husband very seriously, 'all our children are so smart!'" 1

The sociological implications of this picture of confusion in the home is a challenge to the school and to educational agencies of the community.

IV ECONOMIC STRESSES.

Economic stresses are characteristic of a rapidly changing social order. These are not only major problems in themselves but are related to the sociological background of education with influences upon both educational theory and techniques of administration. 2

In the first place the conflicting theories concerning the need for economic reform with which the world is beset have repercussions locally, nationally, and internationally. 3

1
Lawrence, Josephene: If I Have Four Apples, New York, F. Stokes Co., 1935, p. 25.

2
Cohen, J. I. and Travers, R. M. W. (Editors): Educating for Democracy

3
Saucier, op. cit., pp. 36, 37.

Schools must either face or avoid the problems thus raised in the social mind. According to Cohen and Travers, elementary schools cannot deal with economic theory, though fundamental habits and practices forming the basis of democratic living, can be established at the elementary stage.¹ Economic factors in social evolution stimulate controversial issues of major importance which secondary school students might study. The results of economic stresses are felt upon all branches of education.

Secondly, economic stresses affect education in more direct ways; namely, those concerned with the financing of education and with the facts of class distinction and economic privilege. Controversial issues related to the present methods of tuition, selection of school equipment, and methods of administration are of current interest. Regarding the fate of the public support of education in trying times, Juda has written that "...it is almost inevitable that education should suffer more than other public interests in time of economic crises. Education is from its very nature one of the most progressive aspects of social life. Naturally the less progressive aspects of social organization will fall behind education, from time to time the lag will be come so great that

1

Cohen and Travers, op. cit., Chap. XV.

education will be pulled back." This view of the status of education, though optimistic in the sense that it posits education in the forefront of progress, is derogatory in that it is based upon the belief that the support of education is too generally neglected by the state. Financial obstacles have not prevented the expansion of educational facilities. In Canada, where educational change has not been markedly rapid under provincial authority, the more recent progressive attitudes in all branches of education are particularly noticeable to the public. There seems little doubt that democratic forces will tend to adjust the financial needs of education to the progressive tendencies in the schools.²

V SCIENCE AND SOCIAL CHANGE.

"By this time it is a truism to say that we are living in a period of revolutionary change".³ The significance of science in relation to the progress of social change is fundamentally causal as well as secondary in character. It involves intricacies in the structure and life of the modern world. For the present purpose, however, the characteristics

1

Judd, op. cit., p. 108.

2

School Progress, Toronto, January, 1940. This number of School Progress is devoted to the subject of "Making the School Fit the School Programme." Some articles on school finance are listed in the Bibliography.

3

Handbook to the Course of Study, (Province of Nova Scotia), Truro News Publishing Co., Ltd., 1935, "Forward", p. iii.

d scientific progress and the influences of science upon social life are generalized as follows:

1. Transformation in the ways of living due to scientific technique.
2. The effect of science upon the minds of people (ie. development of confidence in the ability of science to solve human problems.).
3. The progress of scientific living.
4. Other effects of science upon the modern mind.

The technical advances of science, though obvious and commonplace, are amazing in the rapidity of their development and in their significance. Transformations in methods of communication and ways of living are revolutionary and the nature of the scientific age affects more than the material processes of daily life. Trends of thought and habits of mind are determined.¹ Education is concerned with each of these aspects of science: it is concerned with the training of individuals to manipulate new scientific devices; and it is concerned as well with the effects of new demands upon the intellect which affect the major social problems of individual and social adjustment. Education should help us to understand the age in which we live.

After the admission that science "...has been literally transforming the world...particularly since the Great

¹ Examples of writers who emphasize these points are numerous. Typical ones are: A Century of Stupendous Progress by Joseph McCabe, Charles A. Beard writer of Whither Mankind.

1
War," one might put the question: "What is the principle contribution that modern science and scientific technique have made to civilization?" The question might be answered from one point of view by finding the most important laws and inventions, the survey of which situation would be a momentous task as well as an indecisive one. From such a survey one would be led to consider the contributions of science in the light of two major human issues; namely, the effects of the impact of science upon (1) the human mind and (2) upon the social ways of life. Since the purpose of this discussion is one of illustration, elaboration is not essential. One pervading example may be taken--that of speed in the activities of modern life.

2
Lewis Mumford calls this the "new structure of time", and maintains that it is the fundamental aspect of the relationship between technology and human life. "Through the very mechanism of the clock we have learned to associate measured space with measured time, visual space with temporal space, as in the swing of a pendulum, the movement of an escapement wheel, the passing of a clock hand over a certain inch on a dial...." 3
In other words life has become highly organized; work, rest, and leisure have come to be answered in a high degree of punctuality. The habits of life have become standardized as is the production of material goods.

1
Saucier, op. cit., p. 41.

2
Mumford, Lewis, in Social Education, (Stanford Education Conference), New York, MacMillan, 1939, pp. 80, 81.

3
Ibid.

In point of historical time, however, man's horizon has been expanded by the discoveries of scientific workers. As Mumford puts it:

"...Our historians are far more aware of actual events in Mesopotamia, in Egypt, in Greece than the people who lived almost on top of these places. Similarly we reach forward into the future with the aid of statistical charts and their indicated trends.."¹

Then, too, there is the "contraction" of time through the use of time-saving devices and infinitely speedier means of communication and production. The social significance of these devices is related to the advantages or disadvantages of human welfare derived from the use of the devices. On the one hand, the lessons of the past may be ignored or helpfully taught; on the other, devices of scientific technique are used to produce with or without thought for the welfare of the user.

The routine phases of life are, without doubt, benefitted by punctuality and temporal discipline. Time is saved and human wants are satisfied with greater expedition as regularity and mechanical efficiency increase. But there is another side of life adversely affected by mechanical regularity. "The spasmodic, the irregular and the capricious are as necessary

¹
Ibid., p. 82.

to human balance....as the orderly time routines we too easily take for granted." ¹ The problem thus suggested by the contrary effects of temporal discipline is one of adjustment and balance between the demands of the modern world for discipline and the demand of the human spirit for relaxation and flexibility. Thought and creative activity, for example, cannot always be punctuated by too rigid a periodicity in respect to time-tables without loss to the activity concerned. Because of this fact the tendency to cling to the traditional time-spacing in the elementary school programme may prove a barrier to the best success in the carrying out of the modern educational activities. Yet, if school life is to be realistic, it must train children to realize the passage of time and to form habits of regularity and punctuality.

The study of scientific progress brings to the fore the seriousness of social disorganization and unscientific living, and raises the problem of how education might improve the situation. We might agree at the outset that the habit of scientific thinking has gained a start in the modern world. As Saucier writes: "The method of scientific thinking may not have permeated the minds of the masses but it has, none-

¹
Ibid., P. 84.

theless, gained the respect of large numbers of minds." ¹ Not only in the physical sciences and commercial techniques has this gain been made, but in attempts to clarify social problems as well. Education is looked upon by many today as containing the ultimate solution of social ills. Studies in the fields of criminology, juvenile delinquency, the advance of adult education, and the weakening of dogma and superstition might be given as examples of the scientific gains which we have claimed. Finally, the attempt to co-ordinate fields of knowledge affecting social welfare is, perhaps, the crowning effort in the effort of science to promote and utilize the scientific attitude.

Nevertheless examples of unscientific behavior are countless. Saucier points to the gullibility of the masses of the people in America as proof of a widespread unscientific attitude:

"...Party leaders write a plank full of generalities and inconsistencies, for people like platitudes and slogans and do not readily detect contradictions. The plain truth is often offensive to the people...Similarly advertisements reflect unfavorably on the intelligence of the...people. But the advertisers possess a fair estimate of the people's intelligence." ²

It might be shown further that the acceptance of science as a fact in the modern world is one too largely of blind faith,

¹ Saucier, op. cit., p. 44.

² Ibid.

as was the acceptance of Christianity during the Middle Ages. It is often pointed out that there is a confidence placed in science which could be mistaken for a genuine scientific attitude. Saucier writes that, "the confidence of the common people in science has led them no further in their intellectual outlook than the rejection of their former standards. They are discarding tradition as an agency for distinguishing between right and wrong, or arriving at truth."¹ This belief is upheld by Lippmann² and others who claim in effect that science has shattered beliefs and standards but has not been instrumental in establishing new bases of guidance and planning in personal and social life. Freedom of youth, therefore, is itself a problem affecting the stability of the home and other institutions of society.

Finally there is the problem of family and community economy as to the use and misuse of the material benefits of science. For education the problem involves training in better domestic management especially in communities in which low incomes predominate. The problem in general, however, is not one which pertains to the economic field alone: it is one involving the conservation of all values of life, the moral and spiritual as well as the material and economic.

¹
Ibid., p.45.

²
Lippmann, Walter: "A Preface to Morals", MacMillan, 1929, p. 316

Conditions giving rise to the problem have created mores which are the heart of difficulties challenging both sociology and education. The following picture given by Mumford will serve to illustrate this point:

"...Consider the place occupied by the machine in the life of the typical workingman of Middletown....as known by the cursory observation to all of us. Behold the well-built, sixty horse-power car....which is installed in the family garage. The car is often bought at a sacrifice of essential items in the family budget, like food and medical care. Beside it, in a secondary position, is the dwelling house of the same worker, narrow, cramped, insufficiently surrounded by open space, without garden or pleasant outlook. It is ramshackle and inferior even as a mere technical instrument and positively horrifying if one remembers that here is where young children are reared, where sick are nursed....The motor car, built for speed and motion, receives homage, care, almost worship. The home, built presumably for living, is a sour caricature of human environment..."¹

This picture indicates a need for training in the field of domestic management. The machine in the social environment may be a barrier to wholesome progress rather than a beneficial instrument. The picture indicates, too, that perversion in the sphere of leisure time ambitions and pursuits may be the cause of some sociological difficulties.

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Mumford, op. cit., p. 78.

On the brighter side of social trends we may refer to the fact which Saucier calls the "increasing sensitiveness to injustice." The record of humanitarian movements when viewed by themselves and in terms of the historical background are encouraging evidence of progress. With many evils, such as slavery swept away by legislation, the problem of facing the future seems to many to be one of education, the encouragement of honest thought, the clarification of democratic ideals and the abolition of social evils through an attack upon ignorance. In this view the idea of reform is based upon knowledge and a desire for right on the part of many. It would appear that democracy cannot progress in reality under the protectorship of the few in chosen classes.

Certain alternatives present themselves when the solution of social problems is attempted through the medium of education. In the first place, the complex character of modern social change leads some to press for more rigidity in the standards of life. The presumable advantage of such a policy would be a degree of simplification. There is evidence in the form of authoritative opinion, however, that such a policy is inapplicable because of its incongruity with the present status of democratic progress. Secondly, there is the suggestion of a return to former standards which are presumed ^{to} be lost. This view would appear to have obvious and fundamental objections in its way since the progress of science has already made these

irrelevant. Furthermore, a policy of retrogression would imply a basic ignoring of the facts of social evolution. The course open to education is certainly one of forward-looking nature, based upon foundations of social experience and intelligent experiment.

CHAPTER III.

SOCIAL CONTROL THROUGH EDUCATION.

The present chapter is a brief analysis of the problems of social control through education. The presentation involves theoretical concepts and is, therefore, chiefly a reference to various opinions expressed in writings on the subject of educational sociology. One of the chief objects of the chapter is to consider the relationship of the school to other educational influences of the community. The object, secondly, is to indicate the trend of opinion of leading educationists and educational sociologists concerning the possibility of increasing the influence of the school as a factor in the integration of the various educational agencies in modern society.

Fundamental questions upon which a critical view of the problem at hand may be based are suggested as follows: (1) What does effective social education imply? (2) What are the educational agencies which determine the nature and direction of social control? First: social control implies changes in individual character and changes in group attitudes and reactions.¹ Second: the educational agencies determining social control include all agencies which help to determine

¹ Payne, op, cit., Vol. II., p. 9

the type of behavior which a given social order produces. The direction of social change must be thought of in terms of all-round growth involving society as well as the individual.

The plan of the following discussion is in outline as follows:

I. Education and Growth.

II. Four Bases of Social Control.

- (a) Knowledge of folk traditions.
- (b) Knowledge of modern patterns of life.
- (c) Education as a creative force.
- (d) The application of psychology.

III. Methods and principles of Social Education.

Despite the secondary nature of sources employed, the writer hopes that something of a general view of the problem will be seen in the chapter rather than a mere cross-section of opinion.

I EDUCATION AND GROWTH.

Growth and education can be identified logically as the same process. If they are so identified, education can be appropriately defined as "the process going on in the individual whereby changes in behavior"¹ take place. These changes, being brought about by a coincidental and unorganized influences in the environment of an individual, as well as by controlled influences, are continuous, and in modified degrees, unbroken from the beginning to the end of life. Education cannot be associated entirely with schooling or any one set of influences. Education of the individual is

¹
Payne, op. cit., Vol. II., p. 5.

affected by the community of influences which make up his social environment. Finally, individual growth is part and parcel of social growth.

There are two obvious factors which will determine the nature of educational influences upon the individual. The first has to do with the individual's health, physical and mental. Slavson refers to this factor as the "organic bases of social-¹ization", which bases include peculiar glandular functions, general health and bodily functions. Medical science has done much in co-operation with the school to overcome and compensate for physical weaknesses in children; especially has this been the case in the fields of mental hygiene and the study of glandular disorders.² The purpose of the school is to promote the co-ordination of the applied knowledge of children. It is the centre through which administrative agencies of child welfare can best function. It is said that the school exists for the benefit of the "permanently imbalanced"³ child as well as for the good of the normal, healthy child.

The second factor in determining a child's educational growth is the influence of associates outside the home and the school. It is believed by educational sociologists that the control or direction of the individual is effected largely by direct or indirect control of the group of which the individual

¹ Slavson, op. cit., pp. 162, 163.

² Dauphinee, Miss A. J.: "Glands and Our Pupils", The B. C. Teacher, March, 1939, and April, 1939, pp. 419, 420. See also Chapter VI of this thesis.

³ Slavson, op. cit., p. 163.

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forms a part. Behavior is seldom that of individuals in the strict sense; social compulsions operate. At a point in the life of a boy, for example, the power of the so-called gang might be of greater influence in determining his behavior and attitudes than either his family or his school. Angelo Patri writes of a boy: "He went with a group his own age, talked their language, followed their ways, as they followed

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his". Behavior, good or bad, is not the behavior of a few or of individuals: it is a social function.

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II FOUR BASES OF SOCIAL CONTROL THROUGH EDUCATION.

It may be assumed that the promotion of social control can be effected through the assimilation of useful knowledge. Four forms of knowledge which appear to be essential for this are: (1) Knowledge of folk traditions, (2) Knowledge of modern life and its requirements, (3) Knowledge of the creative forces which may be applied to and derived from education, (4) Knowledge of useful psychological principles. "Knowledge" as the term is intended here implies knowledge derived by the learner, and the educator's knowledge of backgrounds of social life which he can interpret.

(1) One form of education is the assimilation of social culture, sometimes referred to as folk ways or folk traditions. Canadian cultures are varied to the extent

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Saucier, op. cit., p. 109.

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Patri, Angelo,; "Our Children", The Vancouver Sun, August 8, 1941, p. 9. See also Beckless, W.C. and Smith Maupheus, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932, p. 148.

3

Payne, op. cit., Vol. II. pp. 5--10.

that numerous national and ethnic groups are settled in the country. The cultures of Canada are not blended. An important function of education is to assist in the preservation of the rich and varied cultures now represented in Canada and to make this variety of cultural background an asset. The mosiac of Canadian culture¹ presents at once a difficult problem and an opportunity; through imitation there is the opportunity to preserve the cultures brought to Canada by the first generation of alien settlers, then there is the more important task of inculcating the standards of citizenship which must be preserved and fostered in a democratic society.

Attitudes formed as a result of variant cultural backgrounds probably have much to do with the shaping of personality, "which is difficult to change very much later in life."² But, as Professor Watson Kirkconnell writes,

"...Differences of opinion give free countries their most difficult but most important problems of civilization....it takes the highest cultural gifts to harmonize the variant traditions in a single democracy. The persistence of French tradition in Canada thus not only adds the values of another culture to the country but also provides an opportunity for developing the highest qualities of citizenship through facing the problems of national harmony...."³

The cultures of the "variant traditions" in Canada are too complex and not sufficiently harmonized to form a background of folk culture such as arises in Denmark.

¹ Books by such a writer as J. Murray Gibbon illustrate the variety and emphasize the significance of the racial groups in Canada.

² Ogburn, W.E.: Social Change, New York, Heubsch, Inc., 1923, p. 26.

³ Kirkconnell, Watson: Canadians All, issued by Director of Public Information, Ottawa, June, 1941.

This characteristic of Canadian development, though it holds rich promise for future folk culture which might be known as "Canadian culture", tends for the present to divide the cultures of the country. It should not be claimed that the schools alone can make the best of such a national trait but it might be suggested that the schools, together with other educational agencies of Canadian communities, might promote more friendly mingling of the cultural groups of the country. Should this be done it would further the assimilation of diversified cultures.

The discussion of the problem of assimilation of culture by the nation may cause some confusion between the concepts of "national unity" and "national uniformity."¹ The writer suggests that the function of education as far as national culture is concerned is to preserve, not destroy the variety in Canadian cultural traditions: national unity should be founded on the principle of democratic freedom. The growth of the individual is an integral part of community and national assimilation of the cultural inheritance. Part of his growth consists of imitation and unconscious adoption of prevailing social habits, beliefs and ideals; but knowledge of cultural growth, including his adaptation to democratic life, must be inculcated consciously as academic knowledge is

¹
Ibid. p. 11.

inculcated.

The comparative importance of the biological and the social inheritance as factors influencing the development of character is a controversial issue of no great importance to educational sociology, for the reason that the former factor is not subject to the educator's control. In his recent book, Educational Psychology, Judd maintains that heredity is over-emphasized in considerations of educational background.¹ It is more important, he claims, to concentrate upon factors less remote, though inherited ability should not be neglected in the handling of individuals and in the appraisal of individual growth.

Social environment is the social inheritance of the individual; both the biological and the social inheritance are factors in individual growth. "What a person does and the kind of intellectual abilities which he exhibits in mature life are now known to be related to the structure of his nervous system and to the developments which have taken place during the maturing of his powers....both heredity and environment are indispensable in the development of personality... The school must provide for individuals and many types of ability."²

Provision for individual differences is, however, part of the control of the environment and does not indicate

¹ Judd, C. E. : Educational Psychology, 4th ed., 1939, New York, Houghton Mifflin, P.C.

² Ibid., pp. 6, 452.

that inherent abilities themselves are believed to be subject to control. Furthermore, it may be assumed that modern theory or education is influenced by knowledge of social influences upon individual growth. Over-emphasis of these influences in the development of educational theory is not to be feared, for the control of social change is dependent upon action within the scope of administrative power and human endeavour. A summary of the stand which the writer has taken respecting the possibility of controlling social environment and the significance of that control is found in the following words of Saucier:

"One is justified in concluding that the teacher should look, not to various lists of instincts, but to social backgrounds for an explanation of the present status of the child. Hence case studies afford our most adequate scientific approach to discovering the child's real nature. Further, the school must depend upon other agencies of the community for aid in the promotion of its programme. Not only must it use and co-operate with all other institutions and social groups in a common effort to socialize the child, but it must endeavor to improve these social agencies."¹

It is taken for granted by the writer, that to co-operate effectively with other social agencies, the school must adapt its own programme and methods of instruction in such a way that school life will be a vital part of the child's experience. It is especially important that school life should not be isolated from out-of-school experiences.

¹ Saucier, op. cit, p. 123. (Of. Post, Part II, Chap. III).

Through the school many experiences should be interpreted to the child and deficiencies in individual social backgrounds should be compensated for, in part at least, by the school experience.

(2) The patterns of life based upon folk ways are older than those created by the influences of the modern industrial age. Social change means in one respect the supplanting of old habits and attitudes by new ones. Desirable social change, however, means evolution of society in which new patterns of life grow out of old ones. It is not always desirable that older traditions should be lost or destroyed. Education should be designed to assist individual adjustment by having the school, as closely as possible, related to present-day life. In no other way could the school fulfil this function better than by establishing harmony between valuable traditions of society and the new ways of life which are being brought about continuously.

Knowledge of new patterns of life is essential to the modern educator. It has been easier to teach tradition than to adapt the school to changing social needs and schools have retained established methods of instruction and subject matter of traditional value longer than has been best for present-day needs. Educational theorists have made a point in recent years of criticizing education because of its ¹lag behind the advance of science and technical skill. A particular criticism of modern education is that it remains

¹
cf. supra, Chapter II.

too academic. Hart writes of this educational tendency in these words:

"A schoolish intellectualism cannot meet the problems of our world to-day. The sort of mind developed in the school cannot be depended upon to deal intelligently with local and world tasks. Education must be free, and it must free the individual into the presence of the problems and tasks of the world. It must leave him at the end not 'graduated' but ready to begin."¹

It is a controversial issue as to whether educational institutions can and should serve as direct controlling forces in social change.² It cannot be doubted, however, that education should develop critical ability, and ability of leadership through which social agencies will be improved.

Scientific development requires necessary adjustment in agriculture and industry. It would seem as necessary to bring about an adjustment in personal and social knowledge and skill: in health, in the use of leisure, and in the adoption of moral standards "inculcation or education plays an exclusive role".³ It is probable that the incultation of knowledge useful for adjustment to modern society is dependent more upon organized education more than upon the assimilation of traditional folk ways and culture.⁴

¹ Hart, op. cit., p. 140

² Payne, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 7.

³ Ibid, p. 8

⁴ Ibid.,

Social control through education can be superficial. It is said that individuals may be outwardly or superficially motivated, causing adjustment to be partial and ineffectual. Slavson distinguishes two types of persons¹ by the terms "societal person" and "socialized person": the term "societal", in contrast to "socialized", is the term which signifies superficiality in a person's adjustment to the modern environment. The youth, for example, who had become adapted to the technical requirements of his surroundings but who had, on the other hand, little stability of character and was unable to enjoy his leisure with profit, might be in Slavson's terms, a "societal" youth.² It is implied further by Slavson that the task of actual socialization is one requiring thoroughness, and on the part of the educator, deep and extensive knowledge of modern social problems enabling him to discover a vital programme of guidance for the learners under his direction. A knowledge and grasp of the social order enables the educator to use all subjects of study as essential guidance in the experiences of the student.

It may be that teachers in certain branches of education cannot be expected to be fully qualified students of sociology. It might be suggested with justice, however, that teachers in all branches of education should have developed a sympathetic attitude towards the children whom they teach and that they should know the environmental back-

¹ Slavson, op. cit., p. 162.

² Cf. supra, Chapter II (Other examples of social maladjustment are discussed).

grounds of these children in so far as such knowledge is reasonably obtainable. Present-day social conditions seem to make it essential that teachers understand, if they do not practice the rules of the social worker.

(3) In seeking the knowledge of creative forces which can be applied in education one discovers a fundamental rift in the philosophy of education. It is generally agreed that education should be creative in the sense that the individual should develop a capacity "not merely....for adjustment but ability to contribute to social progress by making changes in behavior, by creating the tools of social justice."¹ The progressive educationist speaks of education as "readjustment to experience" and thinks of all ideas as creative if the ideas are useful. Opponents of progressivism do not dispute the stand that education should be continuous and that it should be stimulated by creative ideas. The chief dissention arises in the philosophy of educational discipline. John Dewey, on behalf of the Progressive movement, has taught that useful ideas become creative in the experience of the individual and that the individual discovers truth independently.

The opponent of this view, who calls himself a modern Realist, objects to the theory on the ground that it neglects the importance of objective knowledge and the power of outward discipline. Professor Breed, a Realist, brings

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Payne, op. cit., Vol. II., p. 8

this issue to a head in the following words:

"...Thus more clearly than ever the meaning of the 'activity movement' begins to dawn upon us. The battle line is definitely drawn between the defenders of material content externally supplied and of mental content internally produced; between truth that depends on the satisfaction of man, and the truth that depends on the satisfaction of facts; between those who think of education and life as adjustment to environment and those who think of them as a creation of environment; between the advocates of a morality that is sanctioned by the natural propensities of the individual and the advocates of a morality that in addition is sanctioned by the demands of a self-existent social and physical world; between those whose theory of freedom denies the necessity of external restraint and those who foresee disaster in the denial of such restraint; between those who believe in an education determined only by the inner extension of personality and the advocates of outer as well as inner integration..."¹

The extreme contention of the Progressive educationist is that the creative capacity of the child, without the dictation of adult control, will enable him to develop greater powers than he has hitherto been able to develop.² It is the extreme implications of the progressive theory at which the Realist directs his attack.

To the educational sociologist, the Progressive School has something of value,³ but he prefers the more moderate implications of the movement. A co-ordination of educational philosophies is desired which will "enable us to steer a middle course between the harshness of a purely external

¹ Breed, F. S.: Education and the New Realism, New York, MacMillan, 1939, pp. 117, 118.

² Brown, op. cit., p. 12.

³ Loc. cit., p. 13.

discipline and the softness of much that is called
progressivism and democratic freedom to-day..."¹

In conclusion the writer wishes to propose four bases of creative education. These are: First: That the growth of individuals should be promoted through the process of active adaptation and that the curriculum should provide for such as the following: planning, construction, purposing, creating, criticizing, judging, appreciating, enjoying, feeling. Second: That the school must extend and improve democratic ideas and ideals. Third: That the school should place emphasis upon the development of social personality as the highest form of creative potentiality. Fourth: That education should not be rigid; that it be democratic and designed to develop creative and adaptable individuals.

(4) A knowledge of psychological principles is essential to education; therefore it is essential as a means of promoting social control. In the broadest sense education is "...the process of developing social control..."² All behavior, individual or social, grows out of the habits, skills and attitudes of the individual. The individual, though he is an integral part of the social whole, develops an independent life as a result of social stimuli. Education is retroactive, individually and socially. Psychologically, education relies

¹ Wilson, Frank W.: "Education for Civilization--Art and Humanism", The E. C. Teacher, January, 1941.

upon the means for control of the environmental stimuli. Control of social change involves the complex problem of developing the individual in terms of the environment, but it also involves the problem of direct control of the environment as well.

Social education should be planned in order to utilize psychological traits of the individual. The development of the social sense in an individual must probably "emerge from deep-rooted self-love."¹ Also, certain psychological characteristics must be accounted for in the preparation of education for the control of social change. These are made the basis of determining educational method in the modern school and the exercise of all educational agencies. In this way education is intended to be as immediate and effective as individual circumstances permit.

Slavson emphasizes three principles especially important in the process of individual socialization:

1. It is essential in the educational programme that the child's dynamic and activity drives be satisfied in beneficial activity.
2. Each individual has inherent love-needs which must not be starved.
3. The child's feelings of dependence should be guided with care and understanding.

Socialization should be effected in an atmosphere of happiness without the creation of harmful repressions. That is to say,

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Slavson, op. cit., p. 160.

socialization can best be effected by a dependence upon the use of the natural human drives.

Individual psychological and physical differences appear complex when the individual is faced with the problem of adapting himself to the environment in which he must live. The success of his life will depend upon the degree to which he can overcome handicaps or adjust his own peculiarities to the world. Therefore, it is of little value to the educator, who is also a social worker, to be preoccupied with the theoretical significance of inherited capacities. These are less subject to change than are many of the environmental stimuli.¹ In the case of handicaps such as blindness, nervous disorder and incapacitated arms and legs, much is done by individual effort to compensate for the specific handicap. In most cases, however, it is desirable to raise life distinctly above the level of physical inheritance where this is possible. Judd believes that, despite individual differences, this can best be done by a psychological use of what one might call the romantic features of our rich "social inheritance."² An appeal to this background is said to be an invaluable motive for the promotion of individual effort to accomplish higher things and for the stimulation of social pride.

¹
cf. supra, p. 38

²
Psychology of Education, op. cit., p. 85

Sociologically, it is important to learn the fullest possible background of the individual's behavior. It is believed by some authorities that too much reliance can be placed upon the objective measurement of behavior.¹ It is believed also, that teachers should develop certain skills as social workers and that they should extend their sphere of knowledge of the child beyond the classroom. Knowledge of group influence, the nature of home environment and other influences are of value in assisting the teacher to promote the educational welfare of a given individual. These sources of knowledge are believed by sociologists to be of greater assistance to the teacher than knowledge of children's scores and progress records in school studies.

III. AGENCIES, INSTITUTIONS AND METHODS OF SOCIAL EDUCATION.

The first general agency of social education includes all institutions formally organized for educational purposes. These are; the school, the church, boys and girls' clubs, organised playgrounds, community centres and others. It is with such agencies that method is a matter of professional concern. Well defined policies as to method are likely to be found in the work of each particular institution. In social education, character training is likely to be considered by most educators as the fundamental part of the

¹ Saucier, op. cit., p. 121.

work undertaken. For character training Slavson suggests three alternatives: (1) Abstract drill of precepts, including story-telling, and questioning, (2) The laissez-faire method by which the teacher or adult absents himself from the children and their problems. (3) A method, positive, but devoid of authoritarian domination. The discussion under II (3) of this chapter is a summary of the suggestions regarding principles of method. General principles suggested by Slavson² are as follows:

1. Reasonable freedom of action on the part of children.
2. Provision for co-operative group activity.
3. Co-activity among various groups.
4. Motivation by noncompetitive values.
5. Practice in self-government.
6. Communal participation.

Payne states that all institutions are social institutions and the "moment the school becomes conscious of the gang, or any other element in the social background and uses it for educational ends which it desires, that is, the development of personality or formaking behavior changes, at that moment the gang becomes as much a part of the curriculum as geometry or history."² The school, therefore, is the co-ordinating institution among educational agencies.

The second agency is made up of institutions such as the family, the play group, etc., which are organized for other purposes than education. Community education which brings about changes in the behavior and attitudes of such groups is, however, making one of the primary contributions to

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Ibid.

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Payne, op. cit., Vol. II., p. 434

social education.

The third agency in social education is work and industry. In this agency there is a source of opportunity for the mature practices of social co-operation. Work and industry of a community should reflect the result of education. Yet, because of changing conditions in modern industry, there is a continuous need for further education. If those engaged in occupations are stimulated to seek further training in their own required techniques and in social co-operation as well, a valuable supplementary educational force is found in work itself.

The fourth agency of social education includes commercial entertainment and modes of transmitting public information. It cannot be doubted that media such as the radio and the picture show, though most frequently designated as recreational, are significant forces in the formation of opinion, attitudes and character; while the newspaper, far from being outmoded, has a peculiar responsibility in the determination of social attitude and the degree of intelligence of the public mind.¹ These agencies determine the status of public intellectual and recreational tastes in their own way. It rests with the school to prepare young minds to choose independently the best forms of recreation and sources of intellectual guidance after formal schooling is over.

¹
Brown, op. cit., p. 343.

CHAPTER IV

THE RELATION OF THE SCHOOL TO THE
SOCIAL ORDER

When the function of the school is considered in terms of its direct effect upon public opinion and its responsibility for the nature of the prevailing social order, the problem contains controversial issues.¹ The writer's concern in the present chapter is to outline the chief points of view concerning the function of the teacher in relation to the social life of today.² There are two major theories which may be applied to our problem: the educational "realists"³ contend that the school is inevitably a function of the state, while the so-called "frontier"⁴ writers maintain (subject to some recent modifications)⁵ that the state should be a function of the school. It is hoped that the following discussion may help to clarify the significance of these two theories.

Division of opinion comes over the problem of directness or indirectness which should characterize the teachers

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The radio broadcast, I Disagree, February 9, 1941, (CBS) was an argumentative discussion dealing with some of the controversial issues involved in "The Relation of The School to The Social Order." The debate was carried on by a superintendent of schools and other prominent citizens of the U.S.A.

2

Kilpatrick, W. A.: Group Education for A Democracy, New York, Association Press, 1940, pp. 29--40.

3

This theory is upheld by professors Henry W. Simon and E. S. Breed.

4

The Progressives, or "frontier" writers include professors John Dewey, Jesse E. Newlon, C. S. Counts, J. L. Childs, W. P. Kilpatrick.

5

Modification in thought from radical Progressivism towards a more cautious liberalism can be detected in the recent writings of some of these men; notably, in Experience and Education by Dewey, Group Education for a Democracy by Kilpatrick and Education for Democracy in our Time, by J. E. Newlon.

influence in social control and over the meaning of educational freedom. But a point of common ground is a mutual belief that the formulation of educational aims should be based upon the best knowledge of the social environment and upon the highest obtainable ideals of manhood and citizenship. The role of the teacher must be worked out to the satisfaction and mutual good of all in accordance with principles generally recognized.

The broad view of education covers relationships of family life, vocational preparation, training for the use of leisure time, and the duties of citizenship. The constituents of life might be generalized in terms of health, morals, esthetic appreciation, scientific outlook and breadth of personal outlook. There is a general recognition of the need for specific outcomes of education, such as knowledge and information, habits and skills, tastes and appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and permanent interests. These are the educational conceptions over which no apparent fundamental controversial issues arise. Whenever these are interpreted so as to form backgrounds of social policies, however, limitations of the school's function are sought and problems relating to the proper freedom of teaching are raised.

The opposing theories of education concerning the function of the school and the social order are presented herewith the following points in mind:

1. Progressivists and Modern Realists.
2. Views Common to Both Schools of Theorists.
3. Controversial Issues in the Schools.

I PROGRESSIVISTS AND MODERN REALISTS.

It is believed by sociologists that the individual personality develops in a single pattern by interaction with outer influences.¹ Frustration in the realization of ideals fixed in youth results in thwarting effects upon the development of personality. Educators for whom this difficulty appears extraordinarily great are prone to advocate improvement of the social order as one of the basic functions of educational influences. Opponents of this school of thought claim the former educators to be leaders of indoctrination rather than of education. Whether this contention be well founded or not, the advocacy of social control through the direct influence of the school is the centre of an issue not well defined by the exponents of either of these schools of educational thought. Since both groups of opponents reject utterly a belief in the desirability of indoctrination on their own part, it is evident an interpretation of the theories of the Progressive and the modern Realist is a task of some difficulty.

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Bell, Reginald: Personality Factors in Education,
Stanford Education Conference, op. cit., p. 205.

The Progressivist, George S. Counts, contends that our educational philosophies are based too largely upon the culture of past ages. According to Counts there can be no "all-embracing educational philosophy, policy, or programme suited to all centuries and all ages."¹ Then with special reference to the social sciences, Counts states that the task of formulating educational policies and programmes is not "merely a task of gathering social data."² On the contrary, positive influence must be exerted by the educator:

"...Facts must be selected, interpreted and woven into patterns of utility and purpose...Always and everywhere genuine education is a form of practical endeavour--a form of social action. This means that the educator fails in his line of duty if he fails to step out of academic cloisters, even leave the research laboratory, reject the role of disinterested spectator, take an active part in shaping events, make selections among social values, and adopt, however tentatively and broadly, some conception of social welfare and policy. No enquiry can remove from his shoulders the responsibility of embodying in his theories and programmes some interpretation of history....some general outlook upon the world, some frame of reference with respect to society, some conception of things deemed necessary, of things deemed possible, of things desirable in the proximate future....He may rightly inquire what choices of purpose and direction as practicable and feasible; but being compelled to act he inevitably makes such choices, even though he may conceal his decisions from himself as well as from others..."³

Counts' expression is clearly on the side of those who contend that the school's function in society is properly one of direct influences. His stand is unconditional and uncompromising.

1

Counts, George S.: The Social Foundations of Education, Report on the Commission on Social Studies, American Historical Society, New York, Chas. Scribner and Sons, 1934, p. 1 ff.

2

Ibid.

3

Ibid., p. 3.

If education, as he believes it should be, is called indoctrination by some, then it would appear that Counts is prepared to accept the accusation without apology. His introductory conclusion is that, "the educator should conceive his task in terms of broadest statesmanship."¹

His statement, though pertaining to the disposition of social sciences, opens the question of the social function of the school. The statement has caused objections from various points of view. Perhaps the most pronounced objection is, that the members of the Progressivist "group" are prejudiced on the side of socialism in politics.² The opponents of the group point out, that while the Progressives claim to encourage experimentalism in education, their theory of teaching citizenship is really a means of propagating particular social policies and thus lacks the true character of experimentalism.

The view of the Progressives appears to go further in the field of academic freedom. Bertrand Russell whose writing in this field might be taken as a neutral source, upholds the right of the teacher to throw off all hypocrisy and teach according to the dictates of intelligent and broad-minded reasoning. Russell claims that the support of the status quo³ is too often taken as the only desirable form of teaching.

¹ Ibid, p. 5.

² Breed, op. cit., p. 176.

³ Russell, Bertrand: The Functions of the Teacher, Harpers Magazine, June, 1940, p. 11.

He states, for example, that in higher education,

"...The practice of considering a man's nationality rather than his competence in appointing him to a post is damaging to education and an offence against the ideal international culture..." 1

This particular type of reasoning might not be so applicable to elementary education, though its counterpart might be found. Russell continues in his criticism of educational dogmatism. He states that,

"...dogmatists the world over believe that although the truth is known to them, others will be led into false beliefs provided they are allowed to hear the arguments of both sides. This is a belief which leads to one or other of two misfortunes: either one set of dogmatists conquers the world and prohibits all ideas, or, what is worse, rival dogmatists conquer different regions and preach the gospel of hate against each other...The first makes civilization static; the second tends to destroy it completely. Against both the teacher should be the main safeguard..." 2

In common with Counts, Russell claims that the function of the teacher is, through genuine regard for the welfare of the learners, to teach what he himself believes to be of value. 3

The opponents of Progressivism, while they do not pretend to deplore educational freedom, wish to approach the problem of freedom from a different angle. The teacher should be neutral, they claim, in the sense that he strives only to develop intelligence and selective powers in his learner. Educational freedom as understood by the Progressivist, they say, is the doctrine of the propagandist.

1
Ibid, p. 13.

2 Ibid.

3
Ibid. p. 14.

Kilpatrick answers this criticism by stating that the opponents here confuse education with indoctrination. He writes:

"...When current controversial issues considered at school are taken home for further discussion, excited stant-patters, thinking that education is always the same as indoctrination, call to high heaven that the schools are perverting the youth and subverting the government..."¹

Kilpatrick contends too, that the words pervert and subvert are catchwords and subtly presuppose "the absolute correctness of what already is and the wrongness of even any questioning of the matter."² It would seem, therefore, that Kilpatrick has in mind the evil of official opinion acting as a pressure group upon the school, forcing it to support standards without recourse to critical examination either on the part of the teacher or the student.

As we have noted, the opponents of the Progressivists contend that when an educator takes sides in political matters, he becomes a propagandist. Professor Newlon opens himself to attack on this ground as he blames conservative elements in society through "vested interests" for undesirable pressure put upon the school and teachers. He explains why teachers do not take part freely in political affairs:

¹ Kilpatrick, W. H. (Editor): The Teacher and Society, New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, p. 28.

² Ibid.

"...The controlling reason why teachers do in fact avoid participation in political affairs begins thus to be more apparent. Recognizing that the public school is an effective agency for moulding the minds of youth, powerful interests seek to limit the scope of its operations, to control its curriculum, to render the school socially innocuous. The status quo groups--and it is always defenders of the status quo who fear the effect of an inquiring education, seek to prevent the school from venturing into the areas of life that are of deepest concern to them whether religious, moral, social, political, or economic..." 1

The opponents of the view expressed by Newlon accuse its exponents of wishing to propagandize the schools in favour of 2
Leftist politics and a socialistic society. But the progressives claim in literal language only the right of the school to teach pupils to think critically and to help to direct society towards co-operativeness and abolition of selfish individualism. 3
They say that democratic society must be dependent upon the right of free play of intelligence in schools--that we owe allegiance "not to what we have hitherto thought, but rather to what better study can find 4
out." Finally, in this view, educators must choose, not follow, the lead of society, and logic must shift to a dynamic basis.

Critics of the Progressive theory of the school's social function do not recognize any validity in the claim that a school led according to this theory can develop impartiality on the part of students. Breed writes caustically:

1
The Teacher and Society, op. cit., p. 301.

2
Breed, op. cit., p. 175.

3
Kilpatrick, Stanford Education Conference, op. cit., pp. 231, 232.

4
Ibid., p. 234.

"...The proposal to confine the school to the discovery and dissemination of truth, to give it both conservative function, and to make the teacher a specialist in the values of our social inheritance rather than a leader of questionable reforms, will be regarded by many educational Progressives as renouncing a magnificent opportunity. The opportunity, nevertheless, had best be renounced..."¹

Counts, at least, among the Progressives, does not even suggest that the teacher should show himself to be neutral where social policies are concerned. It would appear, however, that it is too much to assume that even the extreme of the Progressives advocate partiality on the part of the teacher in politics in his school. Little can be gained by considering portions of arguments characterized by mere animosities. Some account should be taken, however, of the reasons offered by the Realists on behalf of the alleged practicability and common-sensed nature of their attitude towards the problem of the school's function in society.

On behalf of the Realists, Simon contends that the school is an "agent of the state entrusted with the training of the young."² This being the case, it is not at all logical to expect the state which supports education, to allow the fostering of emotions which do not strengthen the national unity and patriotic sentiments. "I am not even saying," he writes, "that it ought to be so; but it is, and you cannot

¹ Breed, op. cit., p. 185.

² Simon, Henry W.: Preface to Teaching, Oxford University Press, 1938, p. 11.

alter a fact by wishing it different." ¹ Simon believes that the reason for this realistic attitude on the part of educators is democracy's respect for minorities and difference of opinion. ² Teachers, therefore, cannot always teach what they believe to be right. A democracy, Simon contends, tolerates, even "encourage differences of opinion in most matters." ³ But it does not tolerate extreme views on controversial subjects which might be propagated in educational institutions. To do otherwise, he claims, would thwart attempts at patriotic training and lead to social anarchy.

Such a "logical" theory is apparently looked upon by the Progressives as being motivated by educational cowardice. Childs writes that a "living educational philosophy is never the sheer invention of philosophers and theorists." ⁴ Though these men express the ideas contained in the traditions and practices of their society, the materials are not created by them. "These materials are supplied by the manifold life of society itself." ⁵ To this statement the opponents counter with the questions: "What philosophy? Communism? Fascism? Socialism? We are not told." ⁶

¹ Ibid, p. 12.

² Ibid, p. 15.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Childs, John L. : "A Preface to a New Philosophy of Education, Thirteenth Year Book, Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C., 1935, p. 113

⁵ Ibid, p. 114.

⁶ Simon, op. cit, p. 16

Then to support his interrogative challenge to the Progressives, Simon endeavours to indicate that school, at best, can reflect only in a tardy manner the changes which have already taken place in society. Therefore, the most "a school can hope to do is to train in that respect of social philosophy which it considers best and which will be tolerated by the existing society."¹ Then he adds that, "Even this may take great courage."²

Finally, we find that the Progressives are held by certain opponents as favoring Socialism. Breed goes so far as to label both moderate and extreme Progressive leaders as socialists. He then claims that socialism cannot be supported in a democracy, for as many intelligent people oppose it as uphold it. In any case, he believes that the school is not adapted for the purpose of bringing about fundamental changes in the social set-up. Simon is convinced that to be a teacher successfully, one must adopt this philosophy. But, he writes,

"...If you still insist on becoming a teacher and still insist upon living up to your own unorthodox social opinions, I think I can tell you how far you will go in the classroom with them. You can go with them just up to the point where you are taken seriously, but no further...But just as soon as you achieve that epithet 'dangerous', that is, just as soon as you are starting to be effective, out you go. You will then be in the excellent company of Socrates..."³

¹
Ibid, p. 17.

²
Ibid, p. 180

³
Ibid., p. 18.

And then, as if to assure the reader that he may hold Socrates in some esteem, Simon adas: "Please do not think that I approve of all this. It is just deplorably so."¹

A point which makes a contrast in the two educational philosophies under discussion difficult to understand is the fact that the Realists, no less than the Progressives, criticize traditional schools for their narrow-minded teaching of a national history.² Breed cites passages in American and British histories which he would class as nationalistic propaganda. Then it is pointed out that the Facist and Communistic states adopt the same method of preparing their youth for the acceptance of the respective political philosophies. Criticism of traditional schools by those who, at the same time, condemn the Progressives for attacking conservatism in society, leaves the problem of finding clearcut distinctions in the philosophies of social education somewhat confusing. But the circumstance leads one to believe that greater compromises could be made by exponents on both sides.

II COMMON FEATURES IN THE TWO PHILOSOPHIES.

The exponents of Progressive education support, in a theory that society should be improved as a direct result of educational leadership. These exponents state that economic and social structures have changed faster than has been the

¹
Ibid.

²
Breed, op. cit.;, pp. 167, 171, 172.

adjustment of individuals to the new conditions and faster than the evolution of social and economic organization. They claim that our present social life is organized on the assumption that all who want work can find it if training is provided for the individuals concerned. Since this condition no longer exists, as it might have done in periods of economic expansion in new countries, the Progressive educationists contend that youth must be trained to think and experiment in social reform. Teachers, they claim, should be leaders in the constructive control of social change. Education should be a sum of processes which enable a "free play of intelligence" which is "our final resource to tell us what to think and do in all individual and social affairs."¹ The exponents of social control through education will admit no place in education for lessons taught with authoritative rigidity.

On the other hand educational leaders who claim a liberal but realistic view of the school's function, claim that the teacher cannot reform society; nor is it, they say, the duty of the teacher to try to reform society through the school. Rather it is the teacher's job to develop qualities and abilities in children which will fit them to live in the world in which they find themselves. Social scientists cannot agree upon the desirability of various social and economic policies which are advocated: How, then, can teachers who are not experts in

¹
Kilpatrick, W. H., The Stanford Education Conference, op. cit., p. 228.

social science, decide and teach where such issues are concerned? The Realists advocate that the school should be an impartial medium through which useful knowledge and desirable habits may be acquired.

Superficially, it would appear that the Progressive educationists would discount too completely the traditional heritage of society in education. It is a characteristic point in Progressive educational philosophy that traditional points of view should be sacrificed for the good of present adjustment; but there is evidence to show that, more recently at any rate, that eminent Progressive leaders do not suggest a complete destruction of the social heritage in so far as the subject matter of education is concerned. Dewey has written in a recent essay as follows:

"...The institutions and customs that exist in the present and give rise to the present social ills and dislocations did not arise overnight. They have a long history behind them. Attempt to deal with them simply on a basis of what is obvious in the present is bound to result in adoption of superficial measures which in the end will only render existing problems more acute and more difficult to solve. Policies framed simply upon the ground of knowledge of the present cut off from the past is the counter part of heedless carelessness in individual conduct..."¹

It is through such statements, indicating both moderation and reforming insight, that a basis for compromise and conciliation in the field of educational theory may be ultimately reached. Some common ground for compromise, if

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Dewey, John: Experience and Education, New York, MacMillan, 1938, p. 94.

not for conciliation, between the two schools of thought under discussion can be found in the following disclosures:

1. There is a common belief in the desirability for the development of critical intellects.
2. There must be social and individual adjustment through educational experiences.
3. There are certain generally recognized cardinal objectives for education.
4. Both schools of thought show respect for the social heritage and for the courageous pioneer.
5. Narrow-minded nationalism is condemned.

It is over the problem of limiting the function of the school in the sphere of social change, and over the problem of educational freedom that the controversy is most acute. It is admitted by the Progressives and Realists alike that social change is a fact and that it is the function of education to direct youth in as intelligent a manner as possible. The Realists accept the dictates of society in the matters of educational objectives, while the Progressives look upon society as dynamic, governing the needs in education but reject the claim that education must of necessity uphold the status quo of social objectives. If this final difference in opinion represents a fundamental discord in the theory of educational function, it may require that social intelligence rise to a higher plain before educational freedom is placed upon a sound foundation where it can be democratically appreciated and fostered.

iii CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES IN THE SCHOOLS.

The problem of controversial issues in relation to the function of the school is one phase of the general problem thus far outlined in this chapter. Those who oppose the handling of controversial issues in the schools fear that discussion of them cannot remain objective on the part of teachers and students. It is feared that education would become a form of indoctrination. Indoctrination,¹ educationally speaking, may be taken to mean teaching which influences people with prejudice towards one side of a controversy. This could mean that, education might be made to influence social unity directly through intellectual force; this being the case because of the necessary significance which must be attached to a controversial issue worthy of the name.² The great concern, however, is not that indoctrination has a uniting effect, but that it is likely to have a subversive effect. Education which upholds the traditions of society is never said to be indoctrinating by the society concerned. It is this fact which causes the concern of the Progressive educationists.. They contend that teaching based upon the preconceived superiority of the status quo in society should be considered indoctrination.

But an issue of such importance to society today cannot be left upon a definition of terms. If any solution to the difficult problem is to be offered, the

¹ Washburn, Carleton: A Living Philosophy of Education, New York, The John Day Co., 1940, p. 425.

² Ibid.

main alternatives of the case should be submitted. These alternatives are, as Washburn convincingly states them, "indoctrination, a balanced presentation of both sides (of controversial issues),¹ and avoidance of controversial issues altogether (in public schools)."² It might be said for indoctrination in the form of nationalistic propaganda that some form of unification of the nationalistic mind has been achieved in the Totalitarian states of the world. Unity without unification, however, appears to be the aim of democratic societies. On the other hand it might be shown that, because of natural prejudice where traditions are concerned, it is literally impossible for teachers to always present a perfectly balanced account of controversial issues. Academically, therefore, the question: what shall be done concerning controversial issues by the schools? leads to much antagonism and confusion of thought. In practice it would seem that good teachers solve the problem through sincerity and tact.

The principal result of educational growth is probably the ability to think clearly and constructively and it is desirable that minds should be free from narrowness and hypocrisy. In this educational aim Progressive educationists and Realists express similar views. Among educational leaders of opposing schools there is also agreement on the value of pupils' discussion, even the discussion of controversial

¹ The words in parenthesis are inserted.

² Washburne, op. cit., p. 437.

issues. Disagreement arises in the matter of limitation of discussion and degree of control exercised.

The elaboration of the difficulties of the problem under discussion would lead to by-paths. The point is that practice on the part of pupils in impartial reasoning, according to their maturity, is commended by all leading educationists. The status of public opinion cannot be easily observed and estimated but it is the aim of education to dispel groundless fears, prejudice and hypocrisy. To summarize the point, the following expressive words of Washburne are quoted:

"...A person with a powerful motive but without balanced judgement and scientific reasoning, without eyes wide open for all pertinent facts, is like an automobile with a powerful engine, but no steering gear. It moves with great force, but is doomed to destruction. Both engine and steering gear are indispensable. It is the job of education to give children both powerful motive for solving our problems and scientific thinking to steer their course..."¹

¹

Washburne, op, cit., p. 446.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATION AND THE SAFETY OF DEMOCRACY

Trends of political ideologies during the past decade, and especially the upheavals of the present war, have introduced grave concern for the welfare of democracy. Public expression on the part of national leaders during the present crisis indicates clearly that the welfare of democracy and that of public education are thought of in close relationship.

In the present chapter our aim is to consider the school's relation to the social order in terms of democracy. In the discussion following two assumptions are accepted: (1) "Democratic processes are conditioned by the extent and distribution of educational opportunity"¹; (2) The democratic way of life is essentially desirable

The plan of the discussion is as follows:

1. Concern for the Welfare of Education in Time of Crisis.
2. The Importance of Defining Democracy.
3. The Place of Education in the Support of Democratic Principles.

1. Good, Carter, V.: "Editorial" in Journal of Educational Research, September, 1940, p. 43.

I. EDUCATION AND DEMOCRACY IN TIME OF CRISIS.

Democratic education touches all people through the family. Professor Newlon writes:

"...There is no opinion-forming agency more important than popular education, touching all people as it does most literally from the cradle to the grave..."¹

Democratic peoples feel called upon, therefore, to decide the specific social functions for which their schools are to be employed. This feeling is known to be especially strong at the present time when the world as a whole appears to be unsafe for democracy.² Avenues of propoganda are numerous, and agencies of propaganda are active in them all. Freedom of speech in democratic countries appears to some to be of assistance to the promoters of totalitarian ideologies. Because of the aforementioned belief it is felt in many quarters that the risks of resort to indoctrination of democratic ideals must be taken. It is believed, at any rate, that the teaching of democratic principles should be undertaken as a positive programme with greater stress upon the vital need for preservation of these principles in action than for stimulation of an abstract study of them. It should be understood, therefore, that deomcracy is taken to mean more than a system of government. It must be understood and taught as a way of life embracing the whole field of human relationships which, through

1.
Newlon, Jesse H.: Education for Democracy in Our Time, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. New York and London, 1939, p. 16.

2.
Ibid., p. 31, ff.

the progress of democracy have not been made perfect, but have been brought into the realm of humanitarian ethics. Its ideals must be practised while they are being learned.

Those who defend democracy should understand the characteristics of modern society and world development which make democracy susceptible to inward attack. The emergence of a new division of classes due to industrialization has, for example, rendered democracies which were formerly peacefully united, susceptible to the influences of social strife and agitation. The disturbing influences may, in themselves, be signs of progress in social evolution. Momentarily, however, they may weaken the democracy in its stand against counter forces. Even the habit of self-criticism, constructive though it may be in the long view of democratic development, leads to dissention in time of crisis and makes the internal unity of a country less firm. In the main it would seem that the fight by democratic peoples to preserve essential freedom is a struggle for the maintenance of democratic education. Or, the struggle might be said to be one to maintain the practice of experimental social science in a world in which some nations have submitted to the suppression of experimental adjustment in social life.²

Democracy is fostered by freedom of thought and discussion As Champlin puts it:

¹ Champlin, Carrol D.: Democracy through Education, Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol.XXVI, May, 1940,p.380.

² Ibid., p. 382.

"...There is nothing like practical, authentic information about the world's economic and political movements to preserve our social sanity and to keep us individually clearheaded. Current literature, private and public discussion and the free use of the press and the radio are saving us from being capitulated into the maelstrom of revolutionary panaceas..." 1

The fact that the acute crisis of war may make necessary a curtailment of the ideal thus set forth a necessity does not diminish it. To clarify the confusion of thought created by uncertainty concerning the proper function of education in the social order, it might be suggested that it matters little whether democracy is a result of education or whether the reverse is the case. The important fact is the necessity of making education a positive factor in the strengthening of democracy.

We shall now consider the importance of the conception of democracy. It cannot be denied that an intellectual grasp of its proper significance must be the basis of its promotion.

II THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CONCEPTION OF DEMOCRACY.

The prevailing conception of democracy is one both of fact and ideal. The Editor of the B. C. Teacher writes as follows:

"...We sorrowfully admit that democracy still is an ideal, an unrealized dream; but it is a dream and ideal that tends to embody itself in social and political institutions and practices that deal with mankind as individuals rather than in wholesale lots..." 2

1

Ibid.

2

The B. C. Teacher, (Dr. W. F. Black, Editor) February, 1941, p. 251.

Statements such as follow indicate further the spirit of idealism held by educational leaders:

"Democracy has its own system of moral and social values. It emphasizes the brotherhood of man, co-operation and not selfishness..."¹

"The very presence of democratic institutions suggests study and experimentalism...Democracy in action is based on the brotherhood of man idea, and it carries with it the thought of sincere fellowship and loyal mutual service...Democracy is a challenge to devotion and consecration to the high calling of social usefulness."²

But the practice of democracy as we know it may leave room for doubt as to the extent of its realization. The idea of world brotherhood, for example, appears within democracies to be all but impossible to attain as a means of solving race problems within the nation. The problem of obtaining fair and unprejudiced treatment of Orientals in British Columbia might be cited as a most serious obstacle.³

Educational leaders believe that the ideal must be maintained. The duties of citizenship are many-fold and they should include the maintenance of faith in the ideal of democracy and in the essential value of Christian ethics upon which the democratic ideal is claimed to be founded.

The implications of democracy are too broad to permit definition here. It is noteworthy that a danger of

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Newlon, op, cit., p. 68.

²

Champlin, op. cit., p. 379.

³

The B. C. Teacher, March, 1940, p. 328.

superficial comprehension of its meaning exists, and that resulting from this superficiality is the tendency of passive acceptance of democracy. As Washburne indicates, there is often a cleavage between the "essence" and the "form" of democracy. It is obvious that there must be many forms of democratic activity: "...democracy is a way of life that gives every individual the utmost opportunity for self-fulfillment as a member of independent society." The form of democratic government is not as significant, it is rightly claimed, as the basic ideas which are developed. The ideas in name are freedom, social responsibility, understanding.

Freedom allows intelligent study and reflection, frank expression therefrom, and reasonable action, the object of which is constructive design. Social responsibility involves the realization of individual capability and usefulness leading to unselfish co-operation. Finally, understanding of democracy means the ability to find and see facts in their proper perspective and to reach conclusions in the light of the facts presented. The assumption of these significant meanings can be made, however, only in the faith of idealism, as indeed the assumption of the whole democratic conception must be. Through education it may be possible to teach with greater success in the future the necessity of developing virile character upon which the carrying out of democratic

¹ Washburne, op. cit., p. 447, ff.

² Ibid., p. 448.

³ Ibid.

processes depends. An important point in the conception of democracy is that constant and courageous effort must be maintained.

If this latter fact were understood more generally democracy would likely be stronger to withstand its foes, and violence and hate would not so commonly replace experimentalism and reason. On this subject Champlin writes: "Education is an antidote to these¹isms and anarchies, and this suitable form of education is now being worked out step by step..."

It is evident that a democratic nation must educate for strength of character and democratic intelligence. The process of education should allow for the development of these qualities.

III DEMOCRACY THROUGH EDUCATION.

Education for democracy cannot mean indoctrination for belief in any specific type of political organization. We assume that training for democratic life presupposes freedom of the individual mind. It is not the democratic tradition to believe that co-ordination of community and national effort is to be autocratically imposed but that it is to be developed within society through co-operative reasoning. It can be stated without fear of misinterpretation, therefore, that "the task of the schools in a democracy is

¹

Champlin, op. cit., p. 382.

above all else the adjustment of youth to the social order."¹

Social policies within a democracy can be derived through co-ordination of findings of the various social groups: active among these groups in Canada today are youth congresses, industrial and labour groups, young political groups and religious organizations. In the process of democratic expression and determination there is inevitable conflict of opinion and interests. Because of this, there is a challenge to education to overcome prejudices of race, creed and individual selfishness.

How education can effect this end is a moot question. Educational philosophy and school organization must certainly be determined by the needs of democracy. But it can be seen that organization alone cannot accomplish the task of nurturing democratic life.² Organization might, by becoming lifeless and rigid, be an obstacle to democratic practice. The spirit of democracy should be alive in the school; democratic leadership which is given with the view of drawing from children their talents for self-activity and responsibility is essential.³

¹ Good, op. cit., p. 44.

² Washburne, op. cit., p. 455.

³ Ibid. (Chapters XXXIV, XXXV.)

In the previous chapter two fundamental points of view concerning the function of education in relation to the social order were discussed. No definite evaluation of the respective merits of these points of view were established; perhaps none can be established at this period of educational development. Yet, directly or indirectly, education is either the means or the outcome of the status quo of social policy. The conception of democracy in or through education is highly relative to specific time and place, general and universal though truth may be. Education involves the accomplishment of specific and practical habits and skill with which to meet the demands of the modern world. Though a core of culture be somewhat stable, the character of the social and economic world is dynamic. The trend of educational research ¹ in recent years towards the study of problems in education points to a realization of the latter fact. This gives education and the democratic ideal a vital relationship.

Popular education does not, however, assure foundational training for democracy unless unceasing pains are taken to make it do so. Newlon writes:

"Popular education is not always a creative and liberating influence, for it can be controlled by whatever forces control the state. It may be employed either as an

¹

Good, op. cit., p. 44.

agency of enlightenment or merely for purposes of social control..."¹

Finally, it would appear that there are two essential safeguards if democracy is to remain whole; first a basis of education which provides training and culture for all, and second, a democratic spirit emanating from the leaders and administrators of the schools. Social improvement depends upon social motives working through the best media which civilization has developed. The school should rank high among these media.

In Canada it seems clear that inequality of opportunity, as between rural and urban areas creates a situation which is really undemocratic. Democratic organization within the school cannot overcome undemocratic features of organization, financial support and administration. These latter phases are points which must be considered in a theoretical as well as a practical view of education and school life. The following statement by J. W. Noseworthy is pertinent to our present conclusion:

"Before the school can become the bulwark of democracy there must be education in democracy and democracy in education. Education does not of necessity develop a democratic citizenship. Education can be made with equal effect to produce a good Nazi or a good Fascist. To develop democratic citizenship the school must provide the knowledge necessary for free men, a knowledge that will enable our citizens to preserve and extend their

¹

Newlon, op. cit., p. 81.

freedom. Nor does the school of necessity develop the loyalties essential to the preservation of democracy. To do this it must provide an understanding of the meaning of democracy and the implications of its loss. Nor does the school of necessity develop the disciplines of democracy. These can be developed only by democratic living within the school..." 1

1
Noseworthy, J. W. : "The School--The Bulwark of Democracy,"
The B. C. Teacher, November, 1941, p. 120 (Reproduced from
the Canadian Forum, September, 1941).

CHAPTER VI

THE SCHOOL IN RELATION TO THE SOCIAL SERVICES

Study of the administration of the social services reveals as no other study can the diverse nature of the communities that make up a state. From the family which is the original and basic group, the communities expand in widening circles to form the complete state. The individual has relationships with all the units of the social structure; to understand him he must be studied as a social being. The democratic conception of the state implies the necessity for the best possible development of the component individuals which together make up the various units and communities of the whole state.¹

The chief purpose of the administration of social services is, therefore, to promote individual development. Since the commencement of the present century much progress in this direction has been made. In matters pertaining to public health alone, it can be shown that great strides have been made.² Work of local authorities has developed in the line of the social services in conjunction with the increasing part played by central authorities. The work of voluntary agents has always been a deciding factor in the accomplishment of social service work, and the fruit of voluntary

¹ Cohen, J.I. and Travers, R.M.W.(Editors): Education for Democracy, p.109

² Ibid.

The first of the year was a very dry one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very hot, and the crops were much injured. The first of the year was a very dry one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very hot, and the crops were much injured. The first of the year was a very dry one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very hot, and the crops were much injured.

The second of the year was a very wet one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very cold, and the crops were much injured. The second of the year was a very wet one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very cold, and the crops were much injured. The second of the year was a very wet one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very cold, and the crops were much injured.

The third of the year was a very dry one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very hot, and the crops were much injured. The third of the year was a very dry one, and the crops were much injured. The weather was very hot, and the crops were much injured.

enterprise has, doubtless, been a powerful factor in stimulating the activity of municipal, provincial and federal development of forms of service designed to promote fuller individual and social life in Canada as well as in older nations.

Education, which is itself the most inclusive of all social services, is destined to play a vital part in the carrying out of all other forms of social service. It is through the school and the home that the individual learns to feel the need for further aids to his life. The art of reading, for example, **acquired** partly in the home and partly in the school, but principally in the school, is a prerequisite to the use of public libraries.

The present chapter is a brief discussion of the social services which have practical and direct bearing upon the development of public education and which in varying degrees affect the carrying out of the whole public charge concerning the welfare of children and youth. The plan of the discussion is as follows:

1. The Growth of Social Services.
 2. Examples of Modern Social Service Development for Children
 - a. The Vancouver Schools Library Service.
 - b. School Health Department of Vancouver.
 3. The Nature of Social Services.
 4. Administrative Factors.
-

I THE GROWTH OF PUBLIC SERVICES

The conditions governing the development of Canadian life have limited the growth of public services. Education itself has grown in the face of the difficulties of pioneering, some geographic and climatic disadvantages and economic difficulties enhanced by the advance of frontiers. Canadian history makes it clear, however, that neither educational nor health welfare were ever forgotten issues even in colonial times. Nevertheless, public concern for social services under government sponsorship is a characteristic of recent decades in so far as it has become an important factor in national planning and economy. But it should be noted too, that the older methods of rendering social service still function as supplementary agencies. As has been pointed out, this is desirable in so far as it has an educational and stimulation effect upon the public. A possible danger indicated by some social service workers is that sections of the public can be lulled into a feeling of satisfaction by feeble contributions to voluntary social services. The epoch of public sponsorship of social services marks the stage of scientific approach to the problem which should result in adequacy and thoroughness.

Our discussion in Chapter II indicates that technical and material change creates new needs in the fields of

social service and social guidance. In cities especially there is increasing need for the adjustment of home life to industrial needs. Recent housing movements appear to be filling this need in many quarters. The settlement of rural areas, especially in frontier communities, results in uneven distribution of suitable land and other resources. Such factors affect social, economic and moral development.

New types of social service have developed as a result of the varying needs of both town and country. Some of these services have been created to meet critical social or economic crises, and are temporary in organization. Direct relief and work relief, for example, are of this type. Various permanent institutions of social service, however, are sponsored by local, provincial or federal governments. Canada¹ in common with the United States,² Britain and many other countries has established departments for the direction of social services, some volunteer, others government-sponsored. Among the essential institutions created are provincial and municipal child-guidance clinics,³ mental hospitals, schools and special classes for handicapped children, preventive clinics, nursery schools, vocational schools, night schools, and extension departments.

1. The Canadian Almanac, 1941, Copp, Clark Co., pp.531,317--379; 494, 300, 526.

2. Social Services and the Schools, op.cit.,Chapter I

3. Appendix I

Recognition of the need for social services has been followed by various lines of social services being developed through official and voluntary effort. The general emphasis for the need of further extension of social and personal responsibility through education is the clearest sign of the growth of public consciousness of social service, its value and its need for the future.

The nature of the growth of the social services has created problems for the future to solve, while the urgent need for more adequate social services has itself become a problem of major importance. Spheres of responsibility¹ are not clearly defined and proper integration of the established services is not worked out to the best advantages in many quarters. Standards of the social services vary. Communities suffer from a varying distribution of wealth.

¹
Social Services and the Schools, op. cit., Chapter I.

adding to the burden of voluntary and official workers in unfortunate areas. The integration and general administration of social services has clearly become a problem worthy to be coped with by the best spirit and intelligence of any nation.

II EXAMPLES OF CHILDREN'S SOCIAL SERVICES IN MODERN SETTINGS.

The creation of social services, to be permanently effective, requires thorough planning on the basis of broad social aims. The following outline contains points which the writer believes to be essential:

1. Division of the services. This will require administration of schools, libraries, recreation facilities, health and general public welfare. Others are added or included in the scope of certain of those above named.
 2. Aims of the services. Individual services have specific aims. The following, however, appear to have general applicability: education, prevention of defects, diagnostic, corrective.
 3. Definition of the quality to be maintained. Modern authorities in the fields of social service require that clear notions of qualities which the particular service is to maintain be clearly defined. For example, health, in the modern sense, is not merely an absence of disease. Health and many other concepts must now be thought in more basic and inclusive terms than they have been heretofore.
 4. Training of personnel. This must include a large body of individuals outside the professional sphere. Teachers, parents, numerous assistants and children themselves come under this heading.
 5. The whole environment. Effective social services succeeded by being based upon the broadest possible foundation of service. Individual lives cannot be
-

brought to their fullest possibilities unless all the conditions under which they grow are advantageous to that development.

It is hoped that the relation of the social services to education will be made more clear by a brief exposition of the organization and achievements of two typical branches of the social services in Canada which are vitally linked with the schools. These are: (a) The Schools Department of the Vancouver Public Library and (b) The Vancouver School Health Division.

1

The Schools Department of the Vancouver Public Library.

In the Spring of 1939 the Vancouver School Board and the Representatives of the municipal library of Vancouver City made an agreement whereby a central collection of books would be established for circulation by lots throughout the city's elementary school system. The Librarians required to handle this collection or "pool" were to work under the supervision of the Public Library officials and be paid by the School Board. The new books required for the pool were to be purchased, accessioned, catalogued and rebound in the existing departments of the Library.

By this plan the elementary schools of Vancouver City receive, every month or two, allotments of books of

¹
McTavish, Isabel: The Vancouver Public Library and Schools Department, The B. C. Teacher, January, 1941, pp. 229, 230.

recreational reading to supplement the permanent library of each school. The size of the allotment received by a given school is proportional to the pupil population of that school. The librarians of the Schools Department of the city library, with the assistance of a committee of school librarians, select the books for the pool with special attention to subject and grade needs. Suggestions for new titles are regularly received by the Schools Department from any teachers of the city staff who wish to make them, such suggestions being consolidated by the central committee of school librarians.

The Vancouver school library plan does not diminish the importance of the individual, permanent libraries of the schools. These are made more effective for several reasons, two of which are outstanding: library grants to school libraries can now be concentrated upon the purchasing of useful, permanent reference material; and secondly, school librarians are freed from many of the routine tasks now being performed by skilled assistants in the Public Library. Furthermore many useful books which lay formerly in many school libraries unused because they were familiar to the children of a given school can now be contributed to the pool in

exchange for new books for the school. The new library plan promotes co-operation among the elementary schools of the city.

The former system of individual school libraries, without the benefit of a central library institution bore some fruit, for it did establish school libraries of a worthwhile standard in some schools. Its chief weaknesses were its lack of uniformity and wastefulness. Under it schools became library conscious, in many cases at least, and a staff of school librarians was trained. Through the old library system the city schools were prepared to take advantage of a more co-operative and economical plan.

The Library Committee is representative in that it includes the following members: Inspector of elementary schools, four elementary school librarians, supervisors of primary and special classes and the head of the Children's Library Department. The teacher-librarians on the committee are changed every year, making it possible thereby for all elementary school librarians to serve on the committee at some time. Suggestions from all librarians are invited by the committee.

The extent and variety of the book pool is seen in the fact that, by January, 1941, the pool contained 4200 books of fiction, fairy tales, plays, biographies, handicraft books, poetry and humour, the total collection comprising over

1000 titles. The plan is drafted to include eventually the junior and senior high school libraries of the city of Vancouver.

As can be seen by its organization, the new plan for the promotion of school library facilities in Vancouver is a contrast to the former system by virtue of its facilities for co-operation, equalization of opportunity for the children of the various schools, and because of its economy. Co-operative buying results in more books for the money. Circulation of the books from school to school multiplies the value of each book, while, at the same time, more money and energy can be spent in the expansion and maintenance of the individual school libraries.

In summarizing the benefits of the Schools Department for Vancouver Schools, the head of the same department¹ points to three outstanding advantages of the plan:

1. The best books are procured for the schools at the least possible cost.
2. There is active participation of the school librarians on a co-operative basis resulting in maximum benefit from their training and skill.
3. The individual child learns to associate the school library with the Public library, thus laying the foundation of the appreciation of the community library in adulthood.

Organization and administration of libraries, as with all social services, should be so designed to facilitate their proper functions. The activities of a school library are

¹
McTavish, op. cit., p. 230.

co-operative and "largely ¹insensible of subject matter boundaries." The educational activities have to do with general reading and research, both of which activities occupy children of a very early age when school life is considered in the modern light. The type of the new library organization in Vancouver City was created by librarians and administrators who had the co-operative aims of the library in mind. In this organization the school libraries are not independent units. Their function touches many interdependent educational activities of the community and the province. The school librarian is now a co-worker where many educational activities and problems are concerned. Some ²of these specifically are:

- (a) General classroom activities.
- (b) Remedial reading.
- (c) Curricular building and revision.
- (d) Activities and projects.
- (e) Miscellaneous and incidental co-operation of various kinds.

The keynote of the democratic aim for library and all social services is to furnish economical service on a basis of equal distribution of the benefits.

¹
Fargo, Lucile F.: The Library in the School, Chicago, American Library Association, 1939, p. 35.

²
Fargo, op. cit., pp. 36--43.

The School Health Department of Vancouver.¹

The following is a brief summary of the work done by the various departments of the school Health Division under the direction of Dr. Harold White during the year, 1939, which is the latest year on which a general report has been issued to date.

One feature of the organization of the Vancouver School Health Division is that the work of the supervisors of the various sections of the system is consolidated in such a way as to give services of equal standard to all the communities of the metropolitan and sub-metropolitan areas. This is important, since the system includes relatively sparsely populated communities such as Richmond, West Vancouver and Burnaby. The services cover a surprisingly wide range. The essential work done includes the following samples:

1. Tuberculine testing in the high schools plus X-ray treatment when positive reactions occur.
2. Surveys of classroom temperatures and humidities with the aim of increasing efficiency of heating and ventilating systems and to stimulate the interest of teachers and children in the physical surroundings.
3. Surveys of lighting conditions by the school doctors and nurses for purposes similar to those in heating and ventilation surveys. 2
4. Classification of pre-school children as to physical fitness.

¹
Medical Health Officer's Report for the City of Vancouver and Greater Vancouver Metropolitan Health District, 1939, pp. 15--26.

²
Medical Health Officer's Report, p. 16.

5. Immunization of school children and pre-school children against diphtheria and smallpox.
6. The carrying on of three sight-saving classes.
7. The organization of speech remedial classes. During 1939, 272 pupils were instructed in these classes twice weekly.
8. Audiometer tests followed by recommendation for treatment of children hard of hearing.
9. X-ray testing of teachers in the chest clinic.
10. Surveys of the amount of milk used by families with children.
11. Mental Hygiene Service. A regular system of clinics has been established under the supervision of Dr. C. H. Gundry, psychiatrist.
12. School dental services. There are two clinics, one on half time and one on full time. Dental services in these clinics are given only to the children of the needy.
13. The operation of a tonsil clinic. During 1939 seventeen children were treated free of charge.
14. Special activities such as:
 - (a) Goiter prevention.
 - (b) Toxoid clinics.
 - (c) Home nursing.
 - (d) First aid examinations.
 - (e) Vocational guidance lectures.

In conclusion let us note certain salient principles or objectives and underlying the organization and work of the Vancouver School Health Division. Firstly the services are meant to be part of the educational programme of the school system. Teachers, parents and children must

learn the purposes of the services performed, while upon each is placed responsibility according to the individual's status for the effectiveness and permanence of particular services. The policy of the directors of this system is to lay the foundation of healthful surroundings in the entire community and to set up machinery for the promotion of co-operation of all individuals concerned. As Dr. Gundry has written in his report on the Mental Hygiene service of the system, "...it is not the effects of individual treatment on particular cases that we have to look to, but the opportunity to use individual cases to make our ideas familiar to parents and teachers concerned with them."¹

Whether or not public funds should be used for the treatment of defects found in medical and dental examinations of children is admittedly a controversial issue.² In Vancouver, it is assumed that the major treatment is the financial responsibility of parents, except in the cases of needy parents. Medicines and minor treatments are furnished at cost, however. It is maintained that this policy enables the system to expand and add services which would otherwise be made impossible by the expense of treatments. It is believed also that co-

¹ Medical Health Officer's Report, op. cit., p. 23.

² School Life, Vol. 25, Number 4, Washington, D. C., January 1940, pp. 112, 113.

ordination of responsibility is facilitated by the execution of this policy, and that the educational motive supplied by health services is strengthened. The Vancouver health services being in line with modern views of social services, are essentially educational and co-operative.

III THE NATURE OF SOCIAL SERVICES.

It is intended that the two foregoing outlines should indicate in some degree the nature of social services. Social services embrace all human needs but certain illustrative examples of organized services can be taken to summarize the general nature of all social services. Those services most closely related to the educational service and with which educationists are most concerned are: (1) schools, (2) libraries, (3) public recreation facilities, (4) public welfare organizations,¹ (5) public health services.

Social services, where they are efficient, are not static but continue to grow and develop according to the needs of the society in which they function. In education the school age is tending to increase to allow a greater time for the education required in a more complex economic and social environment. The administration of the social services should be designed to allow growth in accordance with the best vision. Planning for the future is essential for

¹ Social Services and the Schools, op. cit., pp. 9--12.

the development of all social services.

It has been noted that education includes all experience of the individual, and that the purpose of the school in the community is to co-ordinate educational influences so that the best use of the specialized features of education, such as libraries and health, can be utilized to the greatest extent. The school is the central, though not the specialized educational service. Library service is ¹ an example, on the other hand, of specialized service. The library furnishes free service in books, pictures, reviews, lectures, etc. The library service as with the health service and that of public recreation can go beyond the scope of school in their specific spheres; but by so doing the function of these services makes clear that the duty of the school is to train future citizens in the proper use of the social services.

The foregoing outlines of health and library services in particular settings makes it unnecessary at the present stage to deal in detail with the specialized services. It is essential to keep their purposes in mind, however, and to associate them constantly with the whole plan of education. The following plan may be used as a guide in the consideration of the five services to which reference was made ² at the beginning of this section:

¹
Ibid., p. 10.

²
Ibid., p. 8

Public Schools

Purpose: guidance of the intellectual, moral, physical and social development of the individual.

Clientelle: minors and some adults.

Public Libraries

Purpose: Preservation and use of recorded knowledge to supply practical and cultural needs.

Clientelle: interested persons of all ages.

Public Recreation Facilities

Purpose: provision of apparatus for guided leisure-time activity. Leadership also is essential.

Clientelle: interested persons of all ages.

Public Health Organization

This bare outline suggests definite spheres of social service and suggests, at the same time, the necessity for the co-ordination of the services through their administration and function. The school exists to promote individual development in many directions, the acquisition of the ability to read the printed page comprehendingly, being an example of a basic skill to be learned at school. School libraries and public libraries serve an educational purpose which is supplementary to the education of the school.

Health services protect the physical welfare of individual children, removing handicaps and making possible the best use of educational facilities. They do this by protecting children from disease and, by teaching, promote healthful ways and preventive action. Recreation should be planned

to develop leadership and encourage wise use of leisure time. Authorities have characterized desirable recreation¹ as that which is voluntary yet purposeful. A very significant movement in the field of recreational service in Canada is the recreation and physical education programme initiated by the government of the Province of British Columbia in 1935. The whole activity was called by its provincial director in 1939, Canada's Democratic Youth Movement.² "Public recreation authorities seek to reach all age groups in the population with a diversified and comprehensive programme adjusted to the needs and interests of the persons served."³ Finally, welfare, which means well-being, is designed to assist those who are handicapped, physically, mentally, morally or financially. The present status seems to be that welfare services are available on the basis of need.⁴ By maintaining this status the aim of welfare services appears to be to place upon the individual, the family and the community balanced and desirable responsibility.

From this brief statement of the nature of the social services it seems apparent that education is related to all the social services thus far discussed. These services overlap the sphere of education and the school relies upon them in the fulfilment of its purpose. To make the co-ordination of social services possible, administration

¹ Social Services and the Schools, op. cit., p. 11.

² Eisenhardt, Ian: Canada's Democratic Youth Movement, The B. C. Teacher, January, 1939, pp. 223--226.

³ Social Services and the Schools, op. cit., pp. 13, 14.

⁴ Ibid., p. 13.

of the services must be adapted for efficient and co-operative action on a basis of sound economy.

IV ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL SERVICES.

The co-operative library plan for school service now in operation in Vancouver and the School Health Department of Vancouver with their desirable results, are examples of relatively efficient social services made possible by co-ordinated administration under a single authority. The commission of the National Education Association of the United States, studying the problem of administration of educational and social service policies, concludes that this principle of co-ordination of services under a single authority is essential for efficiency.¹ It can be seen by a study of both urban rural organizations in Canada that the modern trend in varying degrees throughout the country is toward the development of this type of administration of social services under the general head of education. Some of the fundamental difficulties met in the progress of this general movement are noted below.²

The administrative organization of a city school system such as that of Vancouver makes the adoption of co-ordinated and unified control possible through the revision of internal details, such as was accomplished in the organiza-

¹ Social Services and the Schools, op. cit. p. 26.

tion of the Schools Department of the Vancouver Public Library. In rural areas it has been necessary to implement a consolidated form of educational administration in order to obtain uniform educational and social service standards for children over a sizable region which would be comparable to those standards obtained in urban areas. A single authority would co-ordinate educational and social service functions and avoid the undesirable overlapping of the functions of separate boards of administration with powers not clearly defined.

From the inception of the movement towards consolidation of rural educational districts in Canada, the policy was recommended by outstanding educational leaders¹ and the early reports of the first experiments² were encouraging. Despite these facts the progress of administrative consolidation of rural educational districts has been, with the exception of the progress made in the province of Alberta, somewhat retarded. In view of the complicated relations that often prevail between the professional and lay administrators³ of educational and related services in some of the rural areas of Canada, it would appear that the lag in the progress of rural consolidation prevents the establishment of equitable financial burdens

¹ King, H. B. : School Finance in B. C., Victoria, King's Printer, 1935, p. 104ff.; Sandiford, Peter: Problems of Canadian Education, The School, Toronto, 1935, p. 658. Other similar reports are obtainable.

² The School, Toronto, May, 1937, p. 744 (Reports on early Alberta Experiments); Plenderleith, W. A., in the Sixty-Fifth Annual Report of the Public Schools of B.C.

³ Judd, Chas. H.: Education and Social Progress, op. cit., p.34.

made necessary by the administration of services in rural districts.

Because of the importance of administrative features of the social services the following brief analysis in of the causes of retardation ⁱⁿ the movement for rural consolidation of educational administration is suggested:

1. There was inevitable political opposition to the movement at the outset, especially on the part of those who felt that the maintenance of local control of education was essential to democracy. It appears that too little effort has been made on the part of the governments and the teaching profession to educate the public regarding the aims of consolidation.
2. Lack of interest on the part of urban citizens whose educational systems already possessed the qualities and standards towards which the rural districts were to be guided.
3. Direct opposition of those in larger rural districts whose tax rates were lower than the newer districts to which they were to be united for equalization of the tax burden.
4. Lack of federal support.
5. Failure of those in charge of the consolidated units to restore democratic principles, such as elected boards of school trustees. This is especially true of the two Units in British Columbia.
6. Lack of money to establish quickly the facilities desired to obtain more ideal educational standards.

Whatever be the other contributing causes for the failure of the movement of consolidation to grow steadily from the outset, the above-mentioned ones appear to be fundamental. Therefore, since unwieldy, undefined and complicated

forms of administration of social services hinder efficiency in the function of the services, it would seem that causes of administrative inefficiency should be among those problems worthy of immediate study. Assuming that the present curricula of Canadian schools have an important sociological background, the efficient function of all social services related to education is important to the whole educational set up.

PART II

APPLICATION OF SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS TO EDUCATIONAL
THEORY AND PRACTICE

CHAPTER VII

THE GENERAL NATURE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULA

The purpose of the present chapter is to indicate the general nature of the elementary school curricula of Canada, giving special attention to the analysis of the sociological influences which they reflect. It is hoped that samples presented will make a comparison of the status of the educational theory with the theoretical data of modern educational sociology understandable.

The topics discussed are as follows:

1. Attempts to set forth the meaning of education.
2. The individual and social nature of elementary education.
3. The guiding principles of learning and growth.
4. Organization for instruction.
5. Conclusions and suggestions for research.

The following chapter deals with the philosophy represented in the curricula under the headings of the subjects of study.

I THE MEANING OF EDUCATION

One does not find in the prefaces to the elementary school curricula of Canada elaborate attempts to define education or to set down its aims in the formal sense. This fact is due, doubtless, to the realization on the part of the Canadian Curriculum-makers that formal statements of idealism in the educational field are subject to greatly varied interpretations. Let us suppose, for example, that

a formal definition of education to be: "the process of bringing about desirable changes in human behavior." The definition in itself may be perfect from the formal, theoretical point of view, but the difficulty of relying upon it is obvious, in that it contains no specific suggestion and no basis for determining what the desirable forms of human behavior are.

¹
The Public School Curriculum ² for Saskatchewan submits five formal definitions taken from the writings of well-known authors prominent in the pioneering and present-day educational and curricular research of America. They are submitted in the preface to the Saskatchewan Curriculum to indicate the spirit of the curriculum and to form a general philosophical background to the more specific elements mentioned subsequently. With the exception of the preface to the Programme for British Columbia, the philosophical statements of the Canadian Curricula tend to be informal with some reference to local educational needs. This fact indicates a desire on the part of the departments of education to leave the teacher a wide scope for interpretation of the modern educational philosophy.

The following portion of this section is a brief presentation of the meaning of education as set forth in

¹
MacDonald, John: Education, Its Philosophy and Foundational Principles, University of Alberta (Mimeographed Lectures) pp. 4, 5, 6.

²
Public School Curriculum and Teachers' Guide, Regina, Saskatchewan, 1931, p. 7.

philosophical statements of the Canadian elementary school curricula. A core of common philosophy runs through all the Programmes, making it necessary to follow more than one presentation only upon occasion, to emphasize the parallel nature of the provincial curricula and to reveal minor variations.

The philosophies reflected in Canadian elementary education are uniformly based upon the belief that education at this level is "activity and experience rather than knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored."¹ The activity described is to be one motivated by natural interest and the impetus of active participation "in an atmosphere of freedom."² The essential elements in the educational process are the pupil, experience, and the teacher. By providing experience for the pupil, the curriculum is a guide to the healthful educational processes leading to moral and physical development and development in the social abilities required in the home, the community and the outside world. The aim of education in Canada, therefore, is to promote the process of growth of the child by an enrichment of the present life, this being claimed the only desirable means of preparation for adulthood "consistent with individual abilities." No

1

Interim Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, (Grades I--VI), Winnipeg 1939, p. 16. It will be noted that this expression is taken from the Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School (Haddow Report), London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1931, p. 92.

2

Ibid. (Manitoba).

essential conflict appears to exist between the activities necessary for preparation for adult life and the natural interests of children. It is stated that education is meant "to develop in the child the fundamental human powers and to awaken in him the fundamental interests of civilized life in so far as these powers and interest lie within the compass of childhood."¹ The aims of education are both social and individual, and education is growth based upon these essential concepts.

One finds the definition implied in more specific terms in four phases of the philosophy set forth in the Programme of Studies for British Columbia. The first phase is that which gives certain fundamental functions of education in both individual and social adaptation. Those specifically stated are: (1) the necessity to impart knowledge, form correct habits and skills, create interests and appreciations, and inculcate desirable attitudes and ideals; (2) the formal recognition of the peculiar needs of childhood as compared with those of adulthood; (4) subject-matter is a medium through which a system of ideals can be created; (5) education is not a function of childhood only, but a "germ" to function throughout life improving the standard of life; (6) the necessity for training children in the fundamental skills of

¹
Ibid.

learning so that individual education can progress independently;
(7) the belief that the activities of school take their
meaning from their relation to life out of school.

The second phase of the implied meaning of
education to which we refer is summarized in the statement
that, "the way and manner of lessons....transcend in social
value the...subject-matter."¹ That is, education is a function,
a growth through activity of the mind and body in co-operative
exercise. The third of these phases in the philosophies which
express the meaning of education, is that education must
provide for individual needs.² The school lesson should be
designed, it is stated, to promote the many-sided development
of the individual. This, however, is not enough without
provision for individual opportunity based upon the variant
abilities of children. Individual needs are manifest in both
individual activities and social, or group activities.

Fourthly, education is the medium through which
the experiences of the home are supplemented and enriched.³
Because of this essential function of education the teacher
cannot divorce himself from the duties of simple social
service through which conditions of the home are made known

¹
Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools of British
Columbia, Victoria, King's Printer, 1941, p.

²
Ibid.

³
Ibid.

to the school, and liason between the home and the school is clearly defined.

The philosophical statement of the Programme for Alberta, while in fundamental harmony with those of the other provinces, is distinct in its emphasis upon the desirability of the "activity principle" in school life. This emphasis is centered on the conception of education being what the child "does" rather than what he "gets."¹ If followed, this trend in educational philosophy in the Alberta curriculum, should indicate a distinct trend in methodology in the Alberta schools.

The elementary school curricula of Canada are in accord where the question of environmental influence is concerned. It is maintained in all the curricula that educational growth should be promoted by a stimulating environment-a child's environment. Again, however, the statements in the Forward to the Programme for Alberta, though extremely brief, appear to be most explicit in this respect. These statements are closely akin to the philosophy of the child-centered school. The point of the remarks in the Forward is that education is activity, based principally upon the child's own desire. Furthermore, no modification of this statement is made by Alberta except that the teacher "will not find it desirable to follow exclusively either the enterprise² procedure or that of formal teaching". The significance

¹ Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools, Edmonton, King's Printer, 1936, p. 3.

² Alberta, op. cit., p. 5.

of this latter statement cannot be evaluated without data concerning the trend of teaching practices in Alberta since 1935. The chief point to be noted in this phase of the meaning of modern education, and one which is stressed in several of the curricula, is that, education being a preparation for adult activity, should, nevertheless, be maintained for children on their own level of attainment and interest.¹

In concluding this section of the chapter the following well-defined points in the philosophies of the Canadian curricula are submitted:

1. The tendency to submit text-book definitions of education and extended lists of standardized objectives is not great, although the Aims and Philosophy of Education in British Columbia is somewhat of an exception. The tendency is rather, to stress the significance of activities and enterprises and to suggest ways of promoting activities.
2. The meaning of education is discussed in terms largely of adjustment and social values. For example, the statement for Ontario summarized the threefold task of education as:
 - a. helping "the child to understand the nature of his environment."
 - b. helping "the child to accept as his own the ideals of conduct and endeavour which Christian and democratic society approves."
 - c. helping the child "to master those abilities essential to living in a modern society."
3. Education is complete growth, stimulated by appeals to interests within the compass of childhood. "The

¹ Manitoba, op. cit. pp. 17, 18. Also: Brown, op. cit., The Sociology of Childhood, pp. 14--22.

² Programme of Studies for Grades I to VI of the Public and Separate Schools, Toronto, 1941, pp. 6, 7.



processes by which people strive to realize the potential blessings inherent in their surroundings--physical, mental, social, and spiritual--is education."1

4. Education aims to "release and direct the creative powers of the learner through proper activities." 2 Furthermore, education is likened to a "germ" which grows throughout life. The education of childhood is the foundation for adult citizenship and adult education --"physical, mental, moral." 3
5. The background of modern education is sociological in that it lays stress upon "life and work" upon the adjustment of the individual to home and community requirements and to the "group effort" in general.
6. Education must produce individual skills and abilities, but these must be supplemented by aesthetic sensitivity and trained emotions.
7. Modern education as explained in the Canadian curricula, is designed to produce the essential elements of citizenship, the foundations of which can be made during the first six years of school life.

II THE INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL CHARACTER OF MODERN EDUCATION.

The social nature of education is explained in the Canadian curricula by first, a reference to the individual growth and secondly, by application of the requirements for educational growth of the individual to the social field of education. Social development and individual development are said to be complementary.⁴

It is stated in several provincial curricula that, progress and success in school should be dissociated as much

1 Programme of Studies for New Brunswick Schools (Grade VII), St. John, J. A. MacMillan, Ltd., Printers, 1941, p. 5.

2 New Brunswick, op. cit., p. 6

3 Haddow Report (1931), op. cit., p. 92.

4 Memoranda for the Guidance of Teachers in the Protestant Schools of Quebec, Que., Department of Education, 1940, p. 7.

as possible from the yearly period of time such as "the grade-a-year plan requires."¹ The statement for Alberta in this connection runs as follows: "The great aim of the Programme is to encourage flexibility in organization and the adapting of instruction to individual needs".² For the individual, the curriculum is the means of supplying him with materials and activities which will guide him towards the life for which he is best fitted. In conjunction with other provisions for the individual and his social adjustment, the training and status of the teacher is said to be a first consideration.³

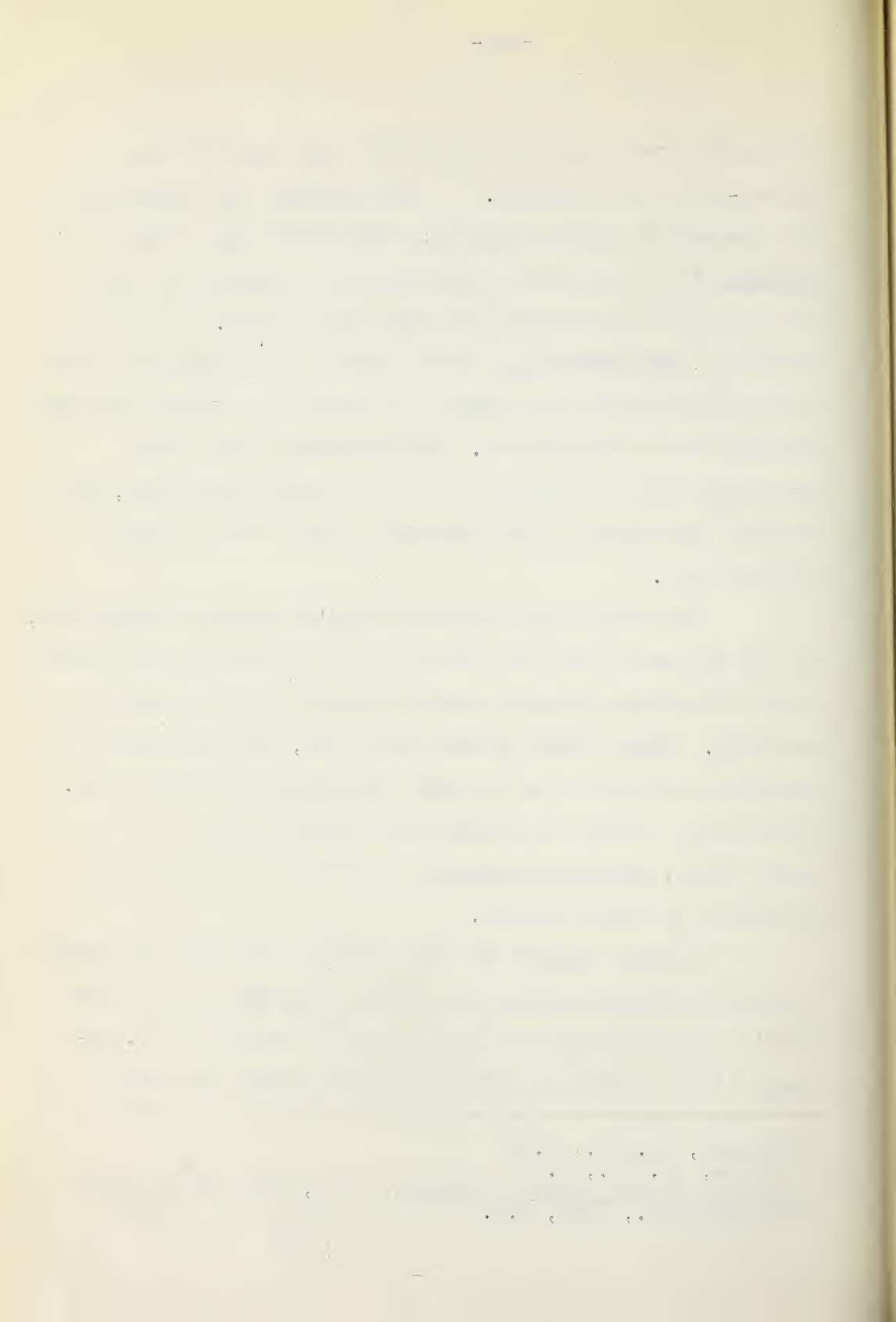
The complicated nature of man's growth is emphasized, and the necessity for the provision for individual differences is one of the most clearly marked points in the provincial curricula. These things being emphasized, the problem of adjustment is said to be of major importance in school life. Education is claimed to involve adjustment to the social order, with some emphasis upon the necessity for adjustment to social change.

Another element in the provision for the individual is that of bringing educational aims within the realm of the child's understanding in so far as this is practicable. Although it is claimed that the child must study and learn

¹ Manitoba, op.cit., p.20

² Alberta, op.cit., p.30

³ Handbook to the Course of Study, Truro, Nova Scotia, News Publishing Co., 1935, p.x.



much that is beyond his present understanding,¹ it is claimed to be of importance too, to have the child "conceive beforehand, in a general way, the result of his work."² The Forward to the Programme for Alberta states this point more specifically than do the other provincial curricula.

The applications of modern educational principles to social education can be summarized as follows:

(1) "Education is a social function,"³ and because society is not static, education must provide for the present and temporary adjustment and capacity for readjustment. Subject-matter, therefore, is not educative "in and around itself," but is the means of creating in the mind a system of social ideals and ideas.

(2) The child's needs are not those of the adult, yet there is no conflict between the demands of the child's social living and those of adulthood. Education proceeds as growth throughout life continues. Furthermore, growth is not in defined stages, but continuous.⁴

(3) The teacher is responsible for asking the question repeatedly: "What contribution can this subject make to the present and future of the child?"⁵

(4) Interpretation of the environment has two major aspects: (a) interpretation of scientific findings in the

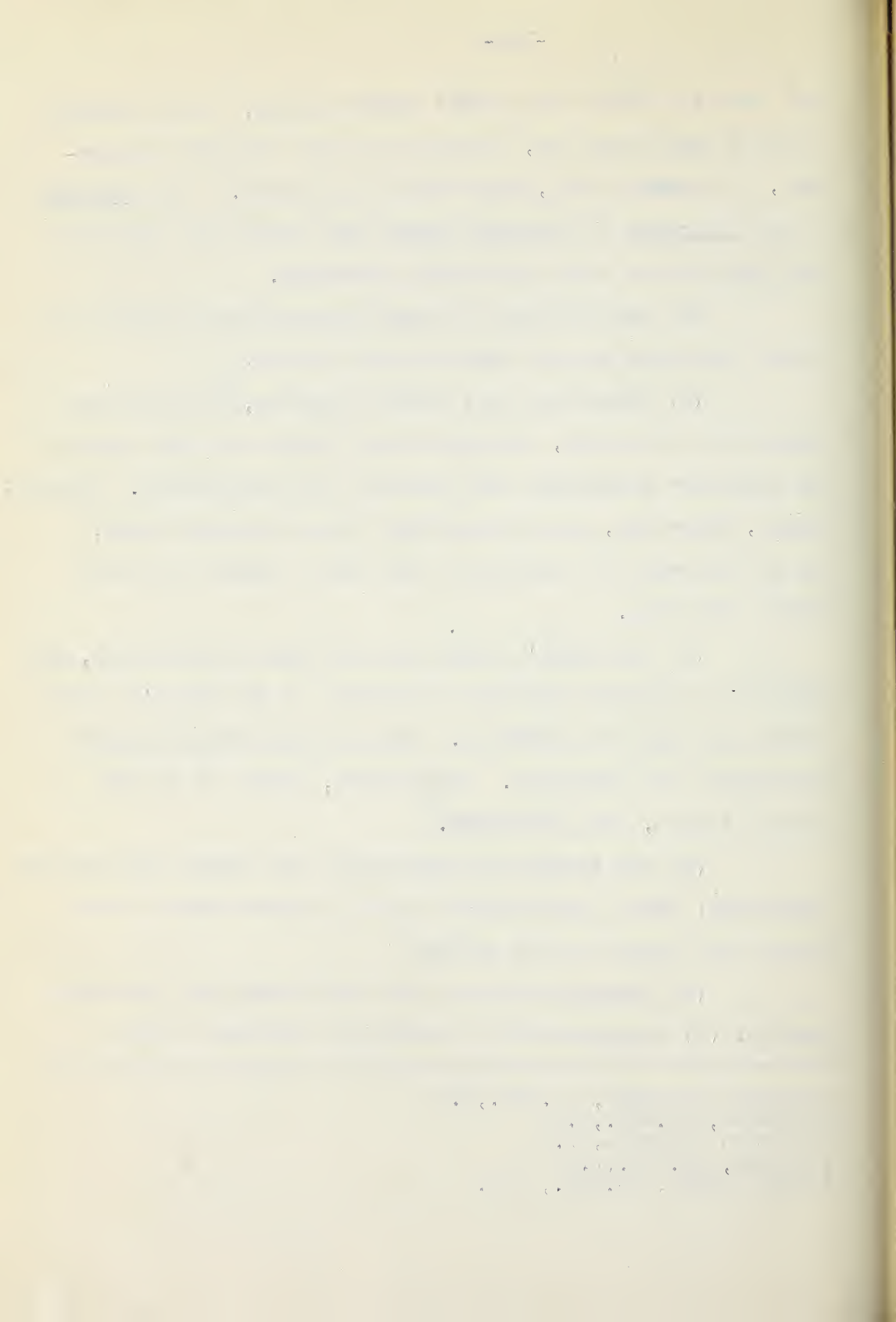
1 British Columbia, op.cit.,p.8

2 Alberta, op.cit.,p.4

3 British Columbia, p.8

4 Quebec, op.cit.,p.6

5 Nova Scotia, op.cit., p X.



world of nature; (b) interpretation of human relationships.

(5) Good citizenship and good work are products of desirable attitudes. Group actions are basic to the understanding of adult life. The teacher's duty is to use the social situation to explain the lessons of life.

(6) Good discipline is essential to education. It is not the result, however, of repression: "all the teacher can do is to stimulate."¹ Some variations in the provincial philosophies can be found concerning this latter function of the teacher, but in general, the spirit expressed here is typical of all the provincial curricula. "Fair Treatment" does not mean "treating all children alike."² Mental hygiene and the principles of child psychology are the bases of treatment of the individual.

(7) The curriculum should "take its touchstone from the community"³ and the approaches to life should be on a functional basis. The curricula for Alberta, Saskatchewan and Ontario lay most particular stress upon this subject.

(8) The school cannot isolate itself from the outside world. The school must co-ordinate its influence with the educational agencies of the community and strengthen the supplementary educational forces of all kinds.

(9) The ideal picture of individual education sets

1 Saskatchewan, op.cit., p.11.

2 Ibid.

3 Brown, op.cit., p.245.

the standards of all-round citizenship: "The objectives of education will be attained if children are so trained that they become healthy, moral, cultural, efficient, self-supporting, and co-operative citizens."¹

The above statements gleaned from the philosophies of the Canadian School curricula, represent the ideal aims of modern education uniting the aims for individual development with those for social adjustment and co-operative life. It remains to relate these aims to educational methods.

III METHODS IN MODERN EDUCATION

Reference to educational method is implied in many or all of the statements concerning the general meaning of education , and in those pertaining to the social nature of education in particular. From the point of view of child-sociology the problem of method is of major importance. Payne states that there is no need in education "greater than that of developing a scientific technique which takes into account the social factors...in the educational process."² Brown maintains that the passing of the recitation by pupils in school of material unrelated to life and its problems was the most significant phase of modern educational development.³

¹

Quebec, op.cit., p.9.

²

Payne, op.cit., vol.II.p. 488

³

Brown, op.cit.,p.210.

The principal point of emphasis common to all the curricula is upon "active adaptation" on the part of children. Methods which will result in activities giving practice in adjustment to social situations are recommended. A classification of the activities recommended is as follows: health activities, carried out in accordance with the principles of mental hygiene; activities in social situations; activities for the development of a vocational aptitude.

Natural aids to learning are recommended. These are interest, activity, and satisfaction. The present, and, sometimes passing interests of childhood, should be utilized, enriched and developed into permanent interests of life. The "play way" and freedom of movement¹ are said to be necessary in order to utilize the child's natural tendencies. The chief purpose of the promotion of basic activities in school is to lead to socialization and the creation of "readiness to use one's resources."² Satisfaction derived from educational activity is said to be rightly produced by honest and successful effort on the part of the child. Virile character is the aim, in terms of outcome, of the promotion of the elements of self-motivation.

¹
Quebec, op. cit., p. 6.

²
Ibid.

The concept of "activity" appears to be the most important feature of modern educational philosophy as expressed in the Canadian school curricula. The comprehension of its significance by the teacher is, consequently, of major concern to the curriculum-makers. Through activity in an atmosphere¹ of freedom, the unity of education is said to be achieved, with the activities of the playground, the classroom, and the extra-curricular period, forming a continuous phase of life, not disconnected segments.

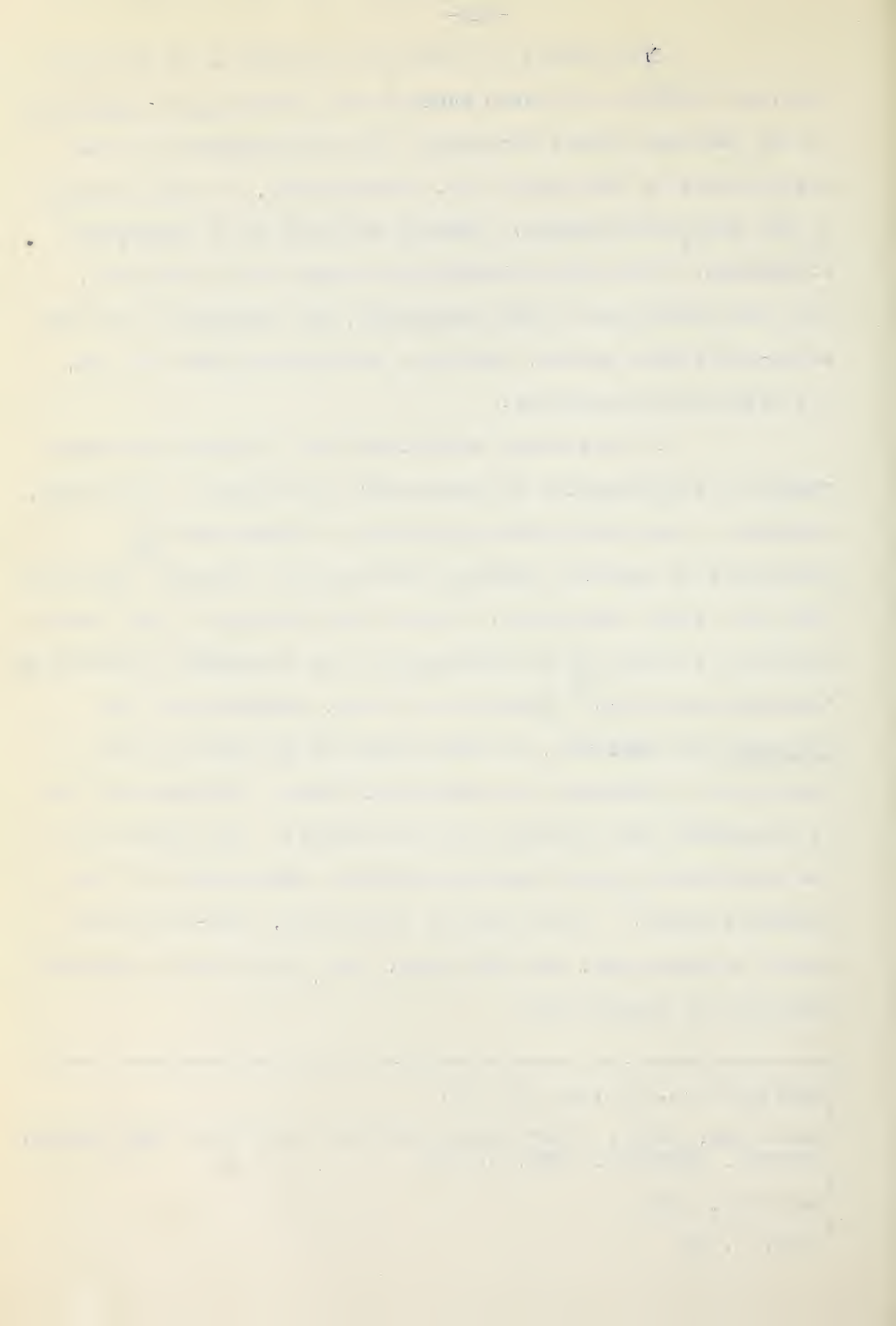
It is perhaps significant that warnings are made regarding the promotion of educational activities. It is felt, doubtless, that unskilled application of freer activity principles in Canadian schools might lead to "sloppy"² education with too little discipline. One of the warnings is that mental activity is likely to be submerged in the confusion of so-called³ "physical activity." Physical activity, according to the Programme for Manitoba, is significant in so far as it is meaningful in relation to a system of ideas. Furthermore, it is emphasized that "liberty is not license." The demands of the democratic plan of society should in this matter be the teacher's guide.⁴ In all school activities, self-discipline should be developed, and with this, the attributes of character essential to social life.

¹ Manitoba, op. cit., pp. 16, 17.

² Sandiford, Peter: "Curriculum Revision in Canada," The School, Toronto, February, 1938, p. 475.

³ Manitoba, Ibid.

⁴ Ibid, p. 16.



The central medium through which educational activity can be motivated is the enterprise. The reasons for the recommendation of this medium are specifically: (1) that it makes possible the objectivity, immediacy and accessibility of goals for children; (2) it furnishes the material means of learning for the child; (3) its progress cuts across the fields of subject-matter and furnishes the best means of integration in both learning materials and individual growth; (4) it furnishes a means of growth in self-direction. Though in none of the Canadian school curricula for the elementary schools is there any statement of compulsion concerning the promotion of the enterprise, it is, however, recommended as a basis for unifying the various subjects "on a basis of normal life situations."¹

If, in the modern school, purposeful activity in an atmosphere of friendship and freedom can be promoted, teacher-pupil relationships are likely to be chief basis upon which such progress will be made. The vitalizing of teacher-pupil relationship appears to be one of the chief aims implied in the philosophical statements of the Canadian curricula.

IV ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION.

The elementary schools of Canada are organized,

¹
Brown, Francis, op. cit., pp. 241, 242.

theoretically at least, upon the basis of six grades, or six levels of attainment. It is presumed that, in schools forced by circumstances to house the pupils of the school according to the traditional 8-4 plan, that opportunities are given for the pupils of grades seven and eight to follow as nearly as possible the plan of study outlined for the intermediate school and to pursue the aims of that school level.

The aims of education forming the basis of the organization of the modern elementary school appear to be very fundamental to child growth. The first case of this is that the growth of the child through this period is meant to be fundamental to all further education. The achievement of these levels of attainment in the elementary school is meant to provide fundamental backgrounds in the following spheres:¹

- (1) mastery of the fundamental subjects in so far as the child as an individual is able.
- (2) attainment of a background for aesthetic appreciation.
- (3) the attainment of a background for further growth of knowledge in natural and social sciences.
- (4) the establishment of effective and permanent health habits.

Another feature of modern organization of the elementary school in Canada is the possibilities in it for promoting the welfare of the individual. The important

¹

Nova Scotia, op. cit., p. xi.

characteristic of the organization in this respect is that it is designed to be flexible, and it is intended that programmes within the organization should be modifiable. This is said to be essential in the case of less able children in order thaty they be kept with their social group.¹ Certain recommended features and practices are important in this respect. One of these appears to be the abolition of rigid and arbitrary standards of achievement in the tool subjects, where the less able children are concerned.² A second is that the teacher must take greater concern than in the past in the appraisal of results of school activities and studies. The appraisal is based upon individual needs and capacities, and should be concerned with such fundamentals as, mental and physical well-being and wholesomeness of the environment, the acquisition of necessary skills, and the development of interests and attitudes of pupils in work and play.

The recommendation that the courses of more than one grade be combined, and that the activities for various grades be followed in successive years, would appear to have a purpose more fundamental than that of convenience. There seems some basis for the belief that the social adaptations required for the working to-gether of children of various ages and degrees of maturity has a distinct value in the promotion of integration of knowledge and of growth. One

¹ Ontario, op. cit., p. 9

² Ibid.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It is essential for the business to have a clear and concise record of all income and expenses. This will allow the business to track its financial performance over time and identify areas for improvement. The second part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all assets and liabilities. This will allow the business to track its net worth over time and identify areas for improvement. The third part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all taxes paid. This will allow the business to track its tax liability over time and identify areas for improvement. The fourth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all debts owed. This will allow the business to track its debt liability over time and identify areas for improvement. The fifth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all equity owned. This will allow the business to track its equity over time and identify areas for improvement. The sixth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all contracts entered into. This will allow the business to track its contractual obligations over time and identify areas for improvement. The seventh part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all legal proceedings. This will allow the business to track its legal history over time and identify areas for improvement. The eighth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all correspondence. This will allow the business to track its communication over time and identify areas for improvement. The ninth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all other business-related information. This will allow the business to track its overall performance over time and identify areas for improvement. The tenth part of the paper discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all other business-related information. This will allow the business to track its overall performance over time and identify areas for improvement.

might suggest at least that simplifying of the programme of studies by this method in the more or less ungraded classes would result in benefits to compensate largely for the lack of specialized teaching in such classes.

If "the elementary school has no business with uniform standards of attainment" it is possible for the teacher to select topics based upon the individual and local needs of the children. The community can, therefore, be made a source of elementary education. Book-study in turn can be made the function supplementing and organizing knowledge and viewpoints gained through the processes of adaptation in the community, the home and the school.

V CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY.

An analysis of educational philosophies does not result in clearly objective data. The samplings of statements which have been considered in this chapter indicate, however, some important tendencies. The following are taken to be the most significant:

1. The curricula for the elementary schools of Canada have a core of common objectives in harmony with the modern educational philosophy of the United States and Britain.
2. Much stress is laid upon individual adaptation and social development.
3. The influence of the "Progressive Movement" is present but in a strictly modified degree.

¹
Ontario, op. cit., p. 11.

4. Modern educational philosophy in Canada has a sociological background in theory.
5. Consideration of modern educational theories suggest the need for objective studies designed to determine the influence of new theories upon educational practices.

The similarity of the philosophies reflected by the provincial curricula suggests that they are all built principally from secondary sources¹ as to educational aims and general outlook. The allegedly conservative² nature of educational evolution in Canada would tend to increase the common elements in the provincial philosophies. Mr. G. F. McNally wrote in 1935: "It has never been the practice in any of the provinces to assume that in order to get a new course every former practice must be abandoned...This is fortunate, because all that is criticised is not bad..."³ On the whole the interdependence of the provinces of Canada regarding educational aims is marked, and the dependence of all the provinces upon American and British sources is equally marked.

Some outstanding features of the revised curricula common to all the provincial philosophies are: (1) recommendation of activity programmes and the promotion of education through enterprises, (2) classification of attainments necessary for adjustment to the social order and its changes, (3) broadening of the concept of health, (4) conception of education as fulfilling both present and future needs, (5)

1

Draper, Edgar M.: Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Making, New York, Appleton-Century, 1936, p. 159 ff.

²Sandiford, "Curriculum Revision in Canada," The School, Toronto, February, 1936, p. 473.

³McNally, G. F.: "Curricula for Canadian High Schools", The School, Toronto, January, 1935, p. 377.

improvement of the environment, (6) individual treatment of children, (7) flexible time-tables, (8) increase of emphasis upon the social factors of childhood, (9) relating the function of the school to the educational agencies of the community, (10) conception of education of the school as a function of society and the state. (11) conception of elementary education as a background for educational growth throughout life.

In the curricula there are attempts to co-ordinate individual adjustment and social growth. Social activities, as well as the individual drills, are presented in terms of varying abilities of children, for, it is said, "Variation will occur also in the way pupils participate in group activities the leadership they assume, and, in general, the wealth of experience they derive."¹ Further, these activities are suggested to make effective the present environment of the children and developing in them the desirable attitudes.

It should be apparent that none of the issues of Part I has been disregarded in the formulation of the educational philosophies of the provinces of Canada. It is emphasized in the curricula that education must promote adjustment of the individual, not only to the present conditions, but to the conditions of "a democratic society which is constantly changing."¹ Whatever question exists concerning the

¹ British Columbia. op. cit., p. 12.

educational function in relation to society and the state is answered definitely in the philosophies considered in this chapter, in so far as the democratic ideal is concerned. In no case is it intimated that school must not "lead the child to choose and accept for his own those ideals of conduct and endeavour which a Christian and democratic society approves."² Where this statement is not made directly as in the case just quoted, it is implied in the nature of the principles laid down for the teaching and promotion of individual and collective responsibilities in and out of school. Also, in this same spirit it is indicated that our concern for the welfare of democracy should be centered on the education of children with the social nature of education uppermost in the minds of teachers; and, in this it is indicated too, that the total welfare of the individual child is in complete harmony with the larger social growth. The writer believes, therefore, that the curriculum-makers of the Canadian provinces are convinced that "education furnishes the ultimate and most subtle form of social control because it controls.... the formation of habit and character of individuals."¹ Finally, it is indicated in the Canadian educational philosophies, that the school should function in co-operation with the educational agencies outside itself, helping the child to get the best from all of these.

¹ Ontario, op. cit., p. 3.

² Ibid., p. 7.

In conclusion, the following points are submitted as the chief elements of the sociological background which can be gleaned from the educational philosophies of Canada:

1. Objectives of education "are not merely the institutions as they are, but as they are becoming." 2 In Canadian educational philosophy, however, it is not indicated that education is the medium through which the institutions of society are to be modified, but through which the individual is adapted to fit into the changing world, and the better world which it is hoped will come. Education is pictured only as the indirect means of social control--control through individual character.
2. Knowledge should be presented in relation to the environment (physical and social) in such a way that its significance is understood.
3. A child's growth consists of both passive and active adaptation. Educational methods in the elementary school should be based upon the child's natural tendencies to as high a degree as possible, thus reducing passive submission to social ways to a minimum.
4. The conflicts of childhood should be utilized with the aim of ultimate co-operation and good will.
5. Activity and an atmosphere of freedom are essentials to wholesome educational growth.
6. Social interactions are extremely important. Teacher-pupil relationships should become "primary" interactions, and second only to the interactions of the home.
7. The school can co-ordinate work of individual and social welfare of a community.

¹ Ellwood, Charles A. (quoted by Payne, op. cit., Vol. 11., pp.11)

² Finney, R. L.: A Sociological Philosophy of Education, New York, MacMillan Co., 1928, p. 95.

The following questions suggest problems unanswered, or inadequately recognized in the philosophies of education which this chapter has attempted to analyse:

1. How can religious instruction be correlated with guidance and character-building, the objective of which are set forth in the Canadian programmes of study?
2. In view of our centralized control of education in the provinces of Canada, how might primary sources be more effectively utilized in the formulation of educational aims? How might an educational programme meet local needs in education and training background?
3. Could there be devised practical measures for social readiness in the elementary school child?
4. To what extent does a revision of educational philosophy in a Canadian province influence the rate of transition of aims and methods of teaching in that province? 1

1

Krause, L. W.: "What Principles of Modern and Progressive Education are practised in Intermediate-Grade Classrooms?", Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XXXV, No. 4. December, 1941, pp. 251-262.

Krause reports in conclusion: "From this survey and data the writer would conclude that the practice of modern and progressive principles are well established in from 5 to 7% of the public classrooms; moderately established in 15 to 20% of the classrooms; and in 70 to 80% of the classrooms they are rarely practised.

CHAPTER VIII

SUBJECTS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

In attempting to evaluate the subject-matter of a curriculum or a set of curricula, it seems essential that some criteria for such an evaluation be stated. Payne's three criteria are submitted as being in accord with modern trends of modern educational theory and with the viewpoint of the educational sociologist. These are:¹

1. The "conventional division of subject-matter must be retained, at least within large limits," because of the necessity for recognizing the history of the development of the curriculum.
2. Within "subject limits, vital material must be added and drawn upon if the social objectives of education are realized." The sources of material should be varied, according to the vital needs of children's activities, and "does not need to be included in the basic texts at all."
3. The subject-matter should possess validity "in the realization of the objects sought...For instance, the problem is not how much knowledge of arithmetic, history and geography the pupils acquire, but rather how the subject-matter...affects the behavior of the child's health, civic abilities, leisure, and the like..."

Study of the elementary curricula reveals that content and method are not thought of separately. If any emphasis is stronger than another, it appears to be that placed upon the important role of the teacher in the selection of subject-matter and interpreting it in terms of useful ideas.

¹
Payne, op.cit., pp. 440, 441, 442.

It is stated in one important source that, subject-matter

"is losing its hold upon education, not because it is subject-matter but because there is so much in the curriculum that is not vital to our present state of culture. We are not moving away from something to teach but towards something to teach that will be more vital."¹

The nature of the Canadian School curricula are discussed below with these fundamental criteria in mind. It is not the aim in this chapter to make a comparison of the provincial curricula; instead, the common and general trends are noted. The following are subject-headings of the curriculum of the elementary school:

- (1) Health
- (2) The Subjects of the Fundamental Skills
- (3) Social Studies
- (4) Elementary Science
- (5) Practical Arts
- (6) The Fine Arts

I HEALTH

The problems of health are spoken of in the Canadian Curricula, not as a subject, but as a programme intended to "pervade the whole of life."² It is dealt with as a major problem of education, and, on the whole, is placed upon an activity basis rather than upon an academic one.³ Further, it is recognized in the curricula that the school is in a unique position in which to promote co-operation among social

¹ The Teacher's Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades, Sacramento, 1936, California State Department of Education, p.39.

² Ontario, op.cit., p. 25

³ Quebec, op.cit., pp. 53, 54.

agencies in respect to health of children and health of communities.¹

A sampling of statements is selected from some of the curricula and quoted below. The nature of the statements indicates that the teaching of health is generally meant to be an integrative process. The samples submitted are as follows:

Manitoba: "Under this heading will be included all those activities and responses of child life which have to do with the maintenance of vigorous, intelligent and moral minds in clean, healthy and active bodies...Sound mental, moral and physical health is essential to the full development of the child..."²

Ontario: "Habits are the result of doing. They are formed as the result of reading and talking. Instruction in health, therefore, should be active rather than formal in nature, and should be linked as closely as possible with the child's daily experience. The food he eats, the clothes he wears, the games he plays, the home where he lives, and the school that he attends, are all related to his health and growth."³

British Columbia: "Health is the first objective of education. It includes mental health as well as physical well-being...It is not sufficient that the pupil have a knowledge relating to health...One may have knowledge which does not function in behavior...it is living, ideals of body-perfection." With these ideals, it is stated that: "the formation of appropriate habits will be much easier and they will be more lasting. At the same time essential knowledge concerning health will be more readily mastered and retained."⁴

Alberta: "Life situations furnish a setting for health teaching that is timely and welcome. The alert teacher is ever watchful for such opportunities. The funda-

¹Manitoba, op.cit., p.28

²

p. 28

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p.16

⁴

p.148.

principles of healthful living are persistent and continuous throughout the grades. The approach at each age level must be made on the basis of natural interests of the children and their capacity to understand and react." ¹

The general plan of health instruction in the modern elementary school indicates the necessity of following the children's interests and capacities at age levels: In Grades I to III, the teaching must be informal, it is stated, and should center around home, family, pets, plants, and animals. In Grades IV, V, VI, instruction concerning the nature of the inner and outer body, nutrition added.

Two distinct features found in the health programmes should be noted. These are: (1) the special attempt indicated in the Alberta Programme to promote the integration of health with the studies of elementary science and (2) the outline of health in the British Columbia Programme in a series of units which are expanded throughout the six grades of the elementary school.

The plan for integration indicated in the Alberta Programme is based upon the following three stipulations:²

1. "The rules of health are based on science, which provides the necessary background for the teaching of health."³

2. "When scientific principles have been learned, they can be applied to useful healthful living."

1

p. 148.

2

p. 144

3

p. 144

3. "Health education is an activity rather than theoretic verbalizing..." It should be integrated with elementary science by means of enterprise procedure.

In keeping with these stated principles, the health programme in the Alberta curriculum is an integral part of the course in elementary science. It should be noted, however, that, although the content for health instruction is so placed in the curriculum, it is in no other respect different from those placed under separate headings in the other curricula. Because of this fact, there is some reason to doubt whether this placement of the health outline would facilitate integration of the two subjects concerned. The effect of this arrangement of the curriculum upon teaching practice should be studied before an estimate of its effectiveness is made.

The outline of health for British Columbia contains¹
"expanding" units as indicated below:

GRADE I

The Outer Body and Cleanliness
The Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, rest, relaxation
Exercise and Posture
Fresh Air and Sunshine
Healthful Living
Safety
Mental Hygiene

GRADE II.

The Outer Body and Cleanliness
The Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, Rest, Relaxation
Exercise and Posture
Fresh Air and Sunshine
Healthful Living
Safety
Mental Hygiene

GRADE III

The Outer Body and Cleanliness
The Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, Rest, Relaxation
Fresh Air, Sunshine, Ventilation
Exercise and Posture
Healthful Living
Mental Hygiene

GRADE IV

The Outer Body and Cleanliness
The Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, Rest, Relaxation
Fresh Air, Sunshine, Relaxation
Safety
Mental Health
Healthful Living

GRADE V

Outer Body and Cleanliness
Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, Rest, Relaxation
Fresh Air, Sunshine, Exercise
Prevention of Communicable Disease
Safety
Mental Health

The Outer Body and Cleanliness
The Inner Body
Clothing
Surroundings
Sleep, Rest, Relaxation
Fresh Air, Sunshine, Exercise
Prevention of Communicable Disease
Safety
Mental Health

The subheadings to be added from grade to grade are starred for convenient observation by the teacher, and throughout the health programme, the details are selected to suit the age-level concerned.¹ In such a plan, an attempt is made to secure unity in the six-year course.

The following outline is common to all the health programmes of the provincial curricula:

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION²

I General:

A. Philosophy behind the Health Programme.

¹ Diagram I.

² Adapted from the Health and Physical Education, programme for elementary schools in Manitoba: Manitoba, op. cit. pp. 26-48.

- 108
- B. The Health Programme--to pervade the whole life of the child.
 - C. Healthful Surroundings.
 - D. Health Examinations--by teacher, school nurse, school doctor, dentist.
 - E. Mental Health.
 - F. Health Habits.
 - G. Reference Books.

II. Specially Adapted Programme for Grades I, II, III.

III. Specially Adapted Programme for Grades IV, V, VI.

IV. Physical Training.

The programmes are stated to be adaptable to the individual child. The topics listed are said to be suggestive and are to be used incidentally, in an integrative fashion throughout the school programme. Time at school would not permit all these topics to be dealt with formally. The activities of the physical education programme are part and parcel of the health programme as a whole. The games, discussions regarding safety, the problem of cleanliness and beauty of the environment are features of the programme, challenging the qualities of leadership and example on the part of the teacher.

In many respects the responsibility of the teacher is extended to wide fields. Physical activity must be for the benefit of each individual. Activity which would be harmful must be avoided. The teacher becomes a social worker in the sense that he is a connecting link between the child and social services. Also he must know the environment of the home in order that he may assist the child in respect to

mental health as well as physical health. Aesthetic appreciation, likewise, is a problem linked with physical education and health: This comes directly through participation in singing games, folk dances, and controlled games, and more indirectly, through developing in the child a respect for the perfection of bodily strength, posture and grace of movement. Then, of all the responsibilities of the teacher, perhaps the most fundamental is that of examining the child in the sociological sense to determine his specific needs. In this work of examination the teacher is assisted by experts--the nurse, the doctor, the dentist (and in fortunate cases, the psychiatrist),¹ but this in no sense lessens the responsibility of the teacher. In the modern school the teacher has sociological duties which imply for more than those of an academic instructor.

These and other features of the modern health programme illustrate the sociological background of elementary education in Canada. They suggest one problem above all others to the writer; namely, that of attracting to the teaching profession men and women of character and ability and of providing for these, adequate leadership and facilities for initial and continued training.

¹ Appendix I contains an illustrative sample of the psychiatrist's leadership.

II THE SUBJECTS OF THE FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS.

"In ordinary life certain experiences which are necessary for intelligent living in later life are either lacking or so casual that they do not bring about the desired learning ...It is the function of the school to supply this lack."¹

It is not stated in the curricula that the skills to be obtained are confined to reading, writing and arithmetic, although these are examples of them. The spirit of the elementary curricula can be summarized, in so far as reference to the fundamental skills is concerned, by the following statement of purpose of the elementary school:² To acquire command of the common knowledges and skills essential to effective living means the acquisition of skills from the following groups:

1. The tools of learning, including reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic.
2. The motor skills involving the use of the hand---crayon, pencil, tools of cutting and measuring, and the manipulation of materials.
3. Oral expression emphasizing particularly ability to talk correctly and naturally, with clear, pleasing tone quality and careful enunciation.
4. Knowledge of the facts essential to the understanding of man's relation to his natural and social environment.

As was indicated in Chapter VII (Part II), it is not intended that skills in the branches above-mentioned

¹ British Columbia, op. cit., p. 9.

² Teachers' Guide to Child Development, California, op. cit., p. 5.

be absorbed with equal readiness by all children. It is both stated and implied in the Canadian curricula that the teacher must set standards for the individual rather than for the group.¹ Competition is reduced to the effort of the individual to improve his own standard of performance. Better pupils set him an example: they do not "beat him."

A detailed analysis of the philosophy and content of the tools of learning is, for obvious reasons, impossible at this point. It is possible, however, to outline briefly certain salient features which are consistently seen in the programmes of the Canadian curricula. Those features selected are intended to indicate the degree of sociological influence discernible in modern educational theory. The writer believes that the philosophy and suggested techniques for the tools of learning are relative to this influence in theory.

Perhaps the most decided purpose for the teaching of the fundamental skills is that they are necessary for complete living. They are basic as a preparation for both childhood and adult life in that they are the means of growth. The concept of growth, therefore, is the outstanding principle upon which the philosophy of the tool subjects is based. This is a concept repeatedly emphasized throughout the philosophical sections of all the curricula. In theory the skills which are said to be essential to complete living are related to the essential activities of life, and it is intended that this

¹
Ontario, op. cit., pp. 11, 12.

principle should be applied in the activities of the school, especially through the enterprise. That this concept of growth through education can be realized, the following educational essentials are recommended in relation to the teaching of the fundamental skills:

1. There should be thoroughness in the learning of the skills: "explanation, exercise, review, and fixing drill" must be employed to obtain this thoroughness.¹
2. Pride in workmanship should be promoted. Neatness in printing and writing and facility in spelling and usage are examples through which pride of workmanship can be developed.
3. Transitions from easier to harder skills should be carefully planned. Development of skill is a growth which should be as continuous as possible. It is the teacher's duty to have knowledge of both lower and higher requirements for any skill being taught. 2
4. Skills should be taught with the aim of increasing creativeness on the part of the individual. Some skills are noble and worth while in themselves--music, for example.
5. There should be a wide use made of reading ability. Reading abilities, being varied, serve to integrate fields of appreciation and factual knowledge. Reading is perhaps the greatest factor in the promotion of integration of study and personality. 3
6. Emphasis is placed upon readiness for skills. Reading readiness and number readiness are especially emphasized. Realistic activities within the compass of the age-level concerned are said to be the greatest stimulus to readiness. The enterprise is recommended.
7. It is essential that training in various types of reading be given.

¹ Manitoba, op. cit., p. 21.

² Ontario, op. cit., p. 37.

³ Teachers' Guide to Child Development, op. cit., p. 13.

8. Interest is fundamental to the development of readiness in relation to the learning of skills. ¹
9. Emphasis is placed upon speech training and voice culture. New emphasis is placed, consequently, upon singing, oral reading, and verse speaking.
10. The modern Canadian teacher is supplied with adequate suggestive bibliographies in modern theory and practice in education.

On the basis of these elements in Canadian elementary education to-day, certain assumptions can be made. It is seen in the above innumeration of elements relating to the fundamental skills that the theory of education supports the development of skills on a functional basis. The skills achieved by the children are meant to assist in the integrative process of study and in the entegration of adult-life processes. They are to be taught with aims and objectives clearly in the mind of the teacher. Secondly, the theory supports the thesis that nothing in the present interest of the child is in conflict with the task of his preparation for life. In the third place, drill for efficiency is not to be carried on mechanically for its own sake: practice should be reflective and meaningful. Transfer of training is not implied in a formal sense anywhere in theory. In the fourth place, standards of achievement, though necessary, are not to be applied to prevent a child, even of the lowest ability, from experiencing a genuine feeling of success and from realizing progress. Finally, the child is

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Alberta, op. cit., p. 83.

to be encouraged to enjoy school life, to visualize his own objectives, to work hard in an atmosphere of freedom and to grow into a period of "active adaptation" as fully as possible during the first six years of school. There is no theoretical support for the lowering of educational standards or for softening the process of education for any child. Teaching practices contrary to these assumptions are, the writer believed, based upon misguided interpretations of the theory of the modern curriculum.

On the basis of the principles of educational sociology indicated in the last chapter, the conclusion at this point is that, the elements of modern education enumerated in this chapter are in fundamental harmony with those principles. This is not because sociological elements are discernible in the theory of the Canadian Curricula, but because they are discernible in a predominant sense.

III THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

The programmes outlined under the heading of Social Studies, vary in content and suggested procedure from province to province, more noticeably than do those for other subjects. Nevertheless, some fundamental elements of the social studies are common to all the provincial courses. One sees references to the problem of breaking down the barriers between subject of study,¹ between geography and history, for example. Again there is a general tendency to vary the content and procedure when the grade IV level is

¹ Manitoba, op. cit., p. 86: This statement is typical of several others on the same point in other curricula.

reached, from quite informal activities to a more formal approach to geography, history and civics. Further it can be stated that the fundamental aim of the social studies programmes is a common one, in that this aim is to teach so that the child will develop an understanding of the world in which he lives and that he should gain this understanding through experiences which develop good character and sound citizenship. Noticeable variation is found among the provincial social studies courses in the degree of formality introduced into the middle-grade programmes.

The themes forming the background of the suggested activities in social studies for the first three grades of school (Division I in Alberta) are the family, the neighbourhood, the homes and the needs of homes. In all except the programme for Nova Scotia, it is suggested that the best way to develop the themes is through co-operative activities, and the use of the enterprise is recommended. In the programme for Nova Scotia, both history and geography are introduced as separate subjects in Grade III. For this grade the Nova Scotia course involves geography and history of the home locality. The emphasis in the social studies for this province is upon thoroughness of knowledge of Canada, and upon the desirability of arousing the children's interest through suitable reading and through the spoken word of an enthusiastic teacher.

In the present case some contrasts and comparisons among the outlines for social studies may help to indicate more general trends in the elementary schools in this field of activity. The following are examples of variations which are in contrast with former practices as well as being in contrast with some forms now in use:

1. The programmes of geography and history for British Columbia, though under separate subject headings (above Grade III), are organized into monthly units each of which includes suggestions as to content and activities. In addition to these, the general purpose of each unit, it is stated, is to assist the teacher in his planning.

2. For British Columbia, the course in history for Grade V, involves a study of the evolution of society from primitive man to the end of the Middle Ages. In the older courses of study this field was reserved largely for the high school grades. In all the present programmes of study the emphasis in history for Grades V and VI is upon the discovery of the New World, and Canadian development.

3. For Nova Scotia, the emphasis in the programmes of history for Grades V and VI, is upon continuity in Canadian history.¹ This continuity, furthermore, is built upon a foundation of stories of Canadian men and women told to the children in Grade IV. The aim of history through this programme is to give the pupil an interest in the background of Canadian life and to give him a clear knowledge of the move-

¹ Nova Scotia, op. cit., pp. 193--200

ments of Canadian development. A few dates are recommended to be memorized in each grade. The following passage from ¹Content and Procedure relative to the Grade V programme illustrates to some degree the spirit of the history curriculum in Nova Scotia:

"The hearing, reading and silent reading of history stories by the pupils of Grade V could with profit be supplemented by the writing of brief essays on topics suggested by the lessons...Even a written examination now and then on the matter gone over would not be at all amiss provided that it is kept subservient to the study of history for its own sake...The pupils should be encouraged and carefully coached in the practice of repeating history stories to a group of listening classmates."

4. The programme for Alberta does not include an outline in social studies for Grades I, II and III. The reason is "that the Social Studies of this programme represent a fusion of History, Geography, and Civics or Citizenship; and as such they represent two types of content: (1) information facts and generalizations, to be studied, comprehended and 'learned' and (2) activities of social living, that induce appreciations, attitudes, abilities and behaviors.

"In Division I (Grades I, II, III) only the second type of content is important and the teacher will provide it by means of the enterprises for the division--the Social Activities." ²

5. The programmes for Alberta and Ontario alone provide suggestions for the outright fusing of the various branches of the social studies.

¹
Ibid., p. 193.

²
Alberta, op. cit., p. 109.

6. "The Community Idea" as a continuous theme running through the whole of the social studies is unique in the Alberta programme.

In conclusion, the writer believes that the theoretical presentation of the elementary social studies in the Canadian curricula is fundamentally in keeping with the modern views concerning the development of the child. The chief of these are (1) that education aims to develop the whole child;¹ (2) that knowledge is that which makes the child's mind effective in purposeful activity. Dr. Wees puts the latter point as follows: "If we think of knowledge as an ability, we are thinking of a much more powerful instrument than if we think of knowledge as a dead weight of fact."² Activity, interest and purpose are highlights in the elementary social studies, especially in those of the lower grades.

It would appear that social activities are less carefully worked out for the middle grades than for the three lower grades. The writer believes that the suggested programme for Grades I, II, and III in the British Columbia curriculum³ might serve as a model in respect to organization of units. There appears no comparable counterpart in the other provincial curricula.

The social studies imply the teaching of a cross-section of human life with attempts to show a background of all the "aspects of living." These are carried through from

¹ Teachers' Guide to Child Development, op. cit., p. 2.

² Dickie, op. cit., p. 20.

³ British Columbia, op. cit., pp. 230--245.

primitive peoples to modern times. It is intended that, whether the continuity of the course is confined to Canada alone (as for Nova Scotia), or whether it takes a broader point of view (as for British Columbia), the object of the social studies is to help children to understand social relationships by seeing vividly the development of people through the ages. There appear to be rather consistent attempts to present social development with a core of continuity. The most impressive device is (to the writer) the "community Idea" employed in the programme for Alberta.

It is stated in all the programmes that it is desirable to break down artificial barriers between the branches of the social studies. As has been indicated, practical suggestions for the carrying out of this ideal are made in the programme for Ontario and Alberta only. Because of this fact, it might be suggested that the outcomes of these two plans might well be studied in school practice.

A final modern aspect of the elementary social studies programmes is the broad use recommended for books and reading. Through reading, integration is meant to be facilitated. For this purpose adequate references to historical and geographical readers are included in the programme-outlines.

IV ELEMENTARY SCIENCE.

Science is provided in the modern curriculum as

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providing "part of liberal training in universal education."
The programme in elementary-school science, it is stated,
"should lead the pupil to goals of information, skills and
2 habits." The aims of the course are : (1) "to initiate
the children into the romance and wonder of science," 3 (2)
to arouse the child's natural desire to know the world about
him and to find explanations of various phenomena, (3) to
learn to make generalizations, and to form "the habit" of
thoughtful generalization, (4) by the latter kind of growth,
to eliminate superstition by learning to look for causes of
effects in the world of nature and to apply this principle
to social relationships as well.

The content of the science programmes of all the
Canadian curricula can be generally summarized as follows:

"...a study strictly elementary in scope yet conducted
in a genuinely scientific spirit; some firsthand observ-
ation of natural phenomena--the changing weather, the
apparent movement of the sun, moon, and stars, the
day and night, and the seasons; and such explanations
of physiology and hygiene as be necessary to give mean-
ing and support to the health habits which the school
attempts to establish in the lives of its pupils.." 4

The general statements concerning the meaning and content of
elementary science in the schools vary somewhat from province
to province, yet it can be said that a fundamental core of
purpose and content is found in all the outlines. It can be
said too, that the common and similar purpose expressed in

1
Manitoba, op. cit., p. 196.

2
Ibid.

3
Ontario, op. cit., p. 87

4
Ibid, See also, Diagram II

these courses of science has a distinctly social meaning for the study of science.

The aims which the writer believes to have this social meaning are seen in the following and other developments desired for the programmes in science:

- (1) enrichment of the child's present life by his study of "outdoor" science.
- (2) discovering the scientific approach to personal and group problems. ¹
- (3) bringing scientific concepts into meaningful relationships.

The first development is dependent largely upon the fact, often expressed in the elementary curricula, that the child is inspired by the enthusiasm of the teacher and that an abiding interest in the "beauty and mystery of nature." ² comes from actual contact with nature; that "reading about nature is not enough." ³

The second and third developments, cited above, are of primary importance in the illustration of sociological background in the theory of the modern curriculum of the elementary school. To some extent these desired developments represent only a prophecy for the future in that the elementary school cannot achieve in practice the idealism of its theory. ⁴ Nevertheless, the projections of these desired developments are intended to be a basic stimulus for the enrichment of present living for the child and are not intended to be interpreted upon a basis of adult standards. Learning the

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Newer Instructional Practices of Promise, Twelfth Year Book, Department of Supervisors of Instruction, N.E.A., 1939, pp. 151, 152.

2Twelfth Year Book, op. cit., p. 165.

3Ibid.

4McGaughy, J. R.: An Evaluation of the Elementary School, New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1937, pp. 393-394.

applying this approach to problems of construction, the science laboratory, the farm, the home, for example, is doubtless the principle of greatest importance in the making of elementary science as a basic school subject. In the programmes themselves there is, perhaps, no better example of an attempt to make science basic, than the attempt to fuse the science and the health, in the programme for Alberta. This attempt may not achieve the results desired, at once, but it points the way for an important integrational development vital to the understanding of healthful living.

Another attempt to promote the discovery and use of the scientific method of solving problems of every-day life is the introduction of the "unit" employed in the Programme for British Columbia. The activities suggested in connection with these units in science indicate clearly that "the problems to be considered should be those arising in the experiences of the children rather than those posed by some writer of textbook or course of study." The truth of this, it appears to the writer, is in the suggestive and variable nature of the activities proposed. It is not claimed here, however, that the general topics proposed as a background for these units are the type or particular quality which would be suggested by children in a purely "child-centered" school. As we have seen (Chapter VII), the present-day curriculum-builders in

¹
Teachers' Guide to Child Development, op. cit., p. 94.

Canada, have assumed that there is much that the child must be called upon to study for which he does not feel a particular need, or even comprehend fully at the time. Yet in the science courses of the Canadian curricula, the child's natural interests are a chief concern. Furthermore, it can be stated that the integrational value of science was observed by those who framed the programmes.

V PRACTICAL ARTS.

The justification of crafts, or practical arts, on the curriculum is made from many points of view. Modern theory of education recognizes that former curricula were too bookish to promote natural and happy growth of children. The crafts play a part in overcoming this defect. One important justification claimed, therefore, is the joy children find in handiwork. Sir Percy Nunn writes that children like handicraft "better than any other subject in the curriculum."¹ Another justification set forth in the Canadian curricula is that the media through which children can express themselves in the handicrafts supply a very useful form of self-expression and creativity. Furthermore, practical skills learned form a background for more advanced craftsmanship and appreciation of good craftsmanship, achieved by skilled craftsmen.

The practical arts are considered below from the following aspects:

¹ Manitoba, op. cit., p. 253.

(1) Varying points of view concerning the desired emphasis which should be placed upon the subject; (2) the social significance of the subject; (3) integrational value; (4) a general view of objectives and main purposes.

1

The Introduction to the junior division of the programme for Manitoba contains statements of possible points of view taken by teachers of the crafts. In this presentation it is implied, as it is in the other curricula, that a considerable amount of freedom of interpretation must be allowed in teaching of the course and to the children in their development of it. Five points of view are included in the Manitoba programme, indicating various extreme preferences:

1. Emphasis upon a knowledge of the whole craft and ability to carry it through. Teaching should be thorough and in easy stages. The slogan for this point of view is : "The craft's the thing."
2. Thorough training in the skills required for individual parts of a craft.
3. Crafts in school as a background for the understanding of the industrial processes of the modern world. The emphasis should be upon social value rather than upon development of particular skills.
4. Constant drill upon a few essential processes. This view emphasizes the importance of specialization in industrial work.
5. Freedom of expression on the part of the child; now stress upon standards of achievement as conceived by the adult.

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Manitoba, op. cit., p. 267.

The confusion one might expect from this variety of points is somewhat dispelled by a consideration of some fundamental concepts of practical arts in the light of modern theory.¹ One of these concepts is that the practical arts furnish the children of the elementary school with an active pursuit, with goals clearly understood by them. Secondly, the constructive nature of the crafts furnishes meaning and practical application^{to} the teaching of design, art appreciation and the use of colour. Again, there is opportunity for training in design in construction work and in the beautification of models. The integrational value of practical arts extends further as an aid to the teaching of history, geography and other subjects, as well as providing opportunity for the application to arithmetic and elementary geometry. A final concept of importance in the treatment of the practical arts is that the subject, more readily than many other subjects, is an activity requiring organization, initiative and social control. In the modern school curriculum the subject easily results in social training.²

It is recognized in the philosophy of the elementary school curricula that the development of a respect for, and knowledge of craftsmanship, is complementary to the nurturing of an appreciative love of beauty.

¹ Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School, London, His Majesty's Stationary Office, 1931, (Eadow Report) p. 195.

² Teachers' Guide to Child Development (California) op. cit., p. 445.

The California State Curriculum Commission deals with this point as follows:

"Although the decisions involved in school situations may seem to be of relatively small importance, they really signify much of what may happen on a much larger scale in the city and state government...People who know nothing about art are often the ones who, when some spot is to be beautified, manage to have their ideas to be carried out...There should be art commissions in each city to control the architecture and other factors which make up its appearance..." 1

The role of the elementary schools should be kept in mind in consideration of this topic. Briefly, the elementary school is the means of providing background activities for later development. But, as Dickie points out, some may not appreciate the degree to which very young children are able to "wrench relevant facts" 2 from their studies and activities. Significance of the social development along the lines of art and appreciation of beauty as in any field is a point of emphasis in the philosophy behind the modern course in practical arts.

The key to the integration of the practical arts appears in the statement that the "needs and resources" of the pupils are the teacher's guide to the selection of work in the crafts. 3 These "needs", it is pointed out, find their source in the child's requirements for his activities and enterprises "in any school subject or field of experience." 4

1 Ibid, p. 445.

2 Dickie, op. cit., p. 97

3 Manitoba, op. cit., p. 268.

4 British Columbia, op. cit., p. 505.

The community and home are included in the "field of experience" where hobbies, and varied constructive activities are concerned. The various media involved in construction work in the elementary school (paper and paste-board, clay, wood, cloth and incidental by-products) suggests varied application of integrative uses of the crafts. Teachers vary in their regard for the value of illustration and construction in a given subject, but they must be the children's guide in the discovery of supplementary aids in his studies.

The broad objectives of the practical arts in the elementary school are indicated in the following brief statements from some of the provincial curricula:

"Creation in the realm of art is emotional, intellectual and physical; since the forms of beauty which the child attempts to create with pencil, brush, or knife have been forefashioned in the mind in response to an emotional experience. For all these phases of such creative effort the curriculum should provide opportunity and training." 1
(Ontario).

"Modern educational practice places increasing emphasis upon outcomes which are social--which meet the needs of average pupils. The child learns through his own activity and courses must be planned to meet this requirement. The materials of the art curriculum may be grouped under three heads: (1) The Knowledge Factor... (2) The Appreciation Factor... (3) The Creative Factor..." (Alberta) 2

"Art and handwork are the principal means of motor training in the elementary school...Children have to repeat swiftly the experience of the race and must be helped in school through their own efforts to become skillful with their hands and to express their artistic ability...They (arts and crafts) are rich in opportunities to develop the qualities of ingenuity, initiative, and resourcefulness, and self-reliance. The pioneer life that has prevailed in Canada in past generations has naturally produced these qualities in its people and the schools should guarantee their active persistence...Education must also awake and

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p. 127.
2
pp. 195, 196.

develop the latent abilities for appreciating and creating the beautiful things which the material development of our country has satisfied in some definite measure." (Nova Scotia) 1

"The ultimate aim of education is said to be social efficiency and individual growth. The process of education is one of gaining experiences either directly or indirectly. The aim of hand-work in the schools is to enlarge the scope of those experiences by providing opportunities for creative expression. Skill is an outcome but is not the primary aim of the creative experiences." (British Columbia) 2

The development of refined skills is not the main objective of this course. That is the field of the specialist. Nevertheless, some amateur ability to draw, design, and model, and construct is required, chiefly as a means to an end. A working knowledge of the principles and techniques underlying the creation of beauty in form and colour is essential to the development of art appreciation and discrimination." (Saskatchewan) 3

From these expressions it can be seen that hand-work is not intended to be a separate subject in the first six grades of the school, "but an integral part of the teaching..." 4 It will likely be taught in great measure by the ordinary teacher who may not be a specialist in handwork. The practical arts of the elementary school, therefore, should be distinguished clearly from the subject of industrial arts taught in the junior high school. Observation of work in practical arts in city schools, especially in platoon schools, reveals to the writer a tendency to regard this work as a subject in itself. This tendency, if it exist, is not in accord with the spirit of the present curriculum of any province.

1 pp. 420, 421.

2 p. 505

3 p. 270

4 Newkirk, Louis V.: Integrated Handwork for the Elementary Schools, New York, Silver Burdett Co., 1940, p.v.

In the statements above there are certain broad, but well-defined educational objectives implied. The chief of these are that practical arts should, (1) give the child objective media for expressing his ideas, (2) provide the child with creative and manipulative interests for leisure-time expression, (3) to acquaint the child with a variety of construction materials and develop handiness with common tools. The habit of making useful things such as book-bindings, posters, toys, charts, maps, etc., should have significance far beyond the walls of the school. This is the plan behind the modern curriculum of practical arts. In cases where the unit in practical arts is carried out, opportunity is given for initiative on the part of the child in organization of materials, planning and execution in construction, and artistic choice in the enrichment by way of decorative design.

AESTHETIC TRAINING THROUGH ART AND MUSIC.

What has been said of practical art, or handwork, is applicable in great measure to the field of graphic arts. In this field too, there is need for manipulative skills, judgment of proportion, and ideas concerning usefulness. Furthermore, the integration of general art with other subjects of the curriculum is an important function of it. "It is the function of the teacher to arrange this integration."¹ Finally, as has been recorded, all art in the modern elementary curriculum is designed to have a wide social significance. It is "part of life."²

¹ British Columbia, op. cit., p. 489

² Ibid.

In so far as general art in the elementary school contributes towards aesthetic development in the child, it can be taken as one with music, dancing, rhythmic activities in physical education and other forms of expression based upon "a fusion of cognitive and affective responses."¹ The aesthetic subjects are to be taught in accordance with the philosophy common to all forms of art, and must be based upon an understanding of child development. It is probably very significant that in the philosophy of art, recognition is made of the tendency in artistic abilities in children to level the differences of their general abilities to some degree.² Because of this, artistic activities are more likely than any other activities to place children upon a relatively equal ability-basis. The spirit of the elementary curricula points teachers to the possibilities of this tendency.

In art and music the curricula provide a very broad field of activities. The periods of artistic development³ in the child are accounted for in this broad outline of the courses. The knowledge, appreciation, and creative factors figure vitally; yet there is repeated emphasis upon the necessity for promoting "free expression with individual variation and originality."⁴ In the graphic arts, the "specific aims", "subject-matter," and "activities", are designed to

¹ British Columbia, op. cit., p. 489.

² Nova Scotia, op. cit., p. 427.

³ Hadow Report, op. cit., p. 47.

⁴ British Columbia, op. cit., pp. 493-504.

allow much freedom to the child under the guidance of the teacher. Knowledge and skills are the tools to be used in the development of artistic sense and appreciation. Activity with creative impulse in the graphic arts are the counterpart to the singing background found in the modern course in music. The thesis in the modern curriculum of art is that creative activity leads to appreciation.

In music, the plan is to learn a great many songs (forty to sixty a year) ¹ rather than a few songs with a view to finished performance. Certain elements of music, however, must be learned thoroughly. The sense of melody, purity of tone and sense of rhythm are the essential background for an understanding and appreciation of music. This is derived through experience in singing and hearing the pure melodies of a wide and varied collection of national and folk songs pre-eminently. Good teaching is said to be particularly essential in music as in art. The delicacy of the task must be appreciated by the teacher, this being of greater importance than personal skills on the teacher's part. In attempting to lead children to cultivate a love of beauty, ² "the teacher must walk warily."

Music, as perhaps no other activity on the modern curriculum of the elementary school is intended to create delicacy, clearness and simplicity of form in the mind and performance of the learner. ³ "Good clear melody and good poetry are essential." For the first few years nearly all

¹ Hadow Report, pp. 186-188

² Ontario, op. cit., p. 129.

³ Ibid., p. 119.

the singing is by rote, and this form is continued through all the grades. ¹ Singing is, therefore, the basis of appreciation of music. Creative work has its place in musical activities. It is recommended that opportunity ² be given for the composition of simple tunes and rhythms. It is pointed out that appreciation comes through the kind of growth of the musical sense that results from increasing knowledge of and delight in singing and listening to good music.

The music courses of the Canadian curricula are in harmony with the recommendations for school music in such authoritative sources as the Consultative Committee on the Primary School in Britain, and the California State Curricular Commission. The aims of the study of music emphasize the desirability of teaching with such materials and methods that the child shall be led to the love of the beautiful. Not only should this be attained by a few, but as many children as possible should be helped to this state of mind and habit, that the democratic meaning of education might be increased. Beauty of material and beauty of performance are made complementary, but strain, and over-emphasis upon technical perfection are discouraged. Enrichment of the training of outstanding children through such special activity as festival work ³ is recommended. There is not total agreement as to the time to introduce notation and sight-singing, nor as to the amount of formal theory to be used throughout the school courses. It is agreed, however, that experience in sound and feeling

¹ Nova Scotia, op. cit., p. 56

² Ibid., p. 560.

³ Nova Scotia, op. cit., pp. 565.

of music should precede the formal learning of theory. In any case the teacher is left with a rich field of professional advice in the form of reading material and a wealth of explanation in the programme of studies itself. Much freedom to the teacher to act upon his own resources and upon a knowledge of the experiences and capabilities of his children. An important essential is that the teacher must "have a genuine interest in music as an educational force. Although it is not necessary that she be specially trained in this subject, it is expected she will avail herself of every opportunity for self-improvement..."¹ It might be said that teachers are asked to teach aesthetic subjects so that they will have a genuine sociological significance.

VII CONCLUSIONS REGARDING METHODOLOGY.

It is not easy to determine the exact status of methodology represented by the theory of education. A few conclusions concerning fundamental changes of attitude toward instructional practices can be made, but one cannot state with certainty that this or that plan of teaching has been adopted by a Canadian province. This difficulty is due in part to vagueness of terms current in educational literature. The Programme of Studies for Alberta states that its outline is in substance an "activity programme." The comparative

¹ Alberta, op. cit., p. 223.

meaning of this statement is, however, difficult to determine. A category in this respect cannot be established. As McGaughy puts it: "The activity programme is not a method or a set of techniques or a different plan for arranging the content of the traditional school curriculum. It is a plan of education itself. It is based upon the fundamental concept that children learn by doing, that they must have purposes in their school activity... that education is not mainly learning about things, but is concerned...with developing in children the capacity to act and react..."¹ Finally, it seems necessary to point out that it is "probably true that no school...may truthfully be called an activity school in all the implications of that term."² Education to-day reflects the influence of the "activity" principle, types of activity being modified for particular needs. The adoption of the "activity" principle means a modification of the tone and spirit of the traditional school, not a supplanting of former practices.

The modern developments in the methodology of Canadian elementary curricula are fundamentally represented by the following statements:

1. The classroom is intended to have an atmosphere of freedom and purposeful activity. Furthermore, the classroom is intended to be "a form of democratic social life" not completely limited by academic lessons.³
2. The enterprise is recommended as a means of stimulating purposeful activity and as a means of cutting across the lines of traditional subject-matter.

¹ McGaughy, op. cit., p. 187

² Ibid., p. 191.

³ Wrightstone, J. Wayne: Appraisal of Newer Practices in Public Schools, New York, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1935, p. 9.

3. Classrooms should be equipped and fitted in such ways as to be homelike, pleasant and promote interest in the studies carried on within them. 1
4. School activities are intended to be linked in meaningful ways with the world outside of school. Children should often study out of the classroom.
5. It is intended that creative activities be encouraged through forms of art and that the creative spirit be extended to other studies, to social relationships, which require initiative, for example.
6. The unit is to be made a realistic study of a problem. Co-operative methods of study are suggested.
7. Readiness and maturation in the child should be the basis of selecting activities.
8. It is intended that activity should have an educational purpose. Mental and physical activity, educationally speaking, are not distinct.
9. Education, through the enterprise, does not exclude formal teaching where the latter is required to give training in the fundamental skills. The use of the enterprise-activities is not a sole form of education. It is a means of producing desired ends in school life.

In order to appraise newer methods in education, it is essential to characterize more traditional ones. Wrightstone lists the following five assumptions concerning former practices:

1. The classroom represents a restricted form of social life, limiting children's experiences therein to academic lessons.
2. The quickest and most thorough method of learning lessons is to allot a certain portion of the school day to instruction in separate subjects.
3. Children's interests which do not conform to a set curriculum should be disregarded.

¹
Child Education, Vol. 16, No. 8, April, 1940, pp. 350-354.

4. The real objective of classroom instruction consists mainly in the acquisition of the content-matter of each subject.
5. Social progress is achieved best through the teaching of conventional subjects. 1

It cannot be stated with accuracy that these characteristics, claimed by Wrightstone for the so-called traditional school, are totally lacking in the modern school. The class-room, for example, is a representation of a "restricted form of social life",² regardless of the progressive methods used in it. Nor can it be assumed that children's interests are always, or should always be the basis of the curriculum-content or method. The stand taken in our revised curricula is that the child must of necessity study and learn much that he does not at the moment feel a need for, or even fully understand. The progressive element in our modern theory consists of a stress upon the education of the "whole child". In the words of Kilpatrick: "Progressive education...means to build its school exactly on these total effects. It seeks to care for the whole child. Not that it does not care for the reading and writing and literature and all like things. It will get these even more than does the old school, but it seeks first the whole child..."³

The moderization of Canadian educational theory has come at such a time, as Sandiford⁴ indicates, when a reaction

¹ Wrightstone, op. cit., p. 9.

² Ibid

³ Kilpatrick, W. H.: Progressive Education, Vol. 7, No. 8, December, 1930, pp. 383-386 (Quoted by Payne, op. cit., Vo. II, p. 405.

⁴ Sandiford, Peter, The School, op. cit., p. 475.

to extreme progressivism in education is evident. It is evident, in view of this, that Canadian revisionists have attempted to guard against loose practices. Our general philosophy accepts the modern view that the "whole child" must be the concern of the educator. Yet this conception is not left in the "general". Suggestive outlines of method, purpose, and content are included in the curricula, serving as a substantial guide to the teacher.

Creative education in school is, perhaps, the most difficult activity to promote. This is true because it is difficult to determine the most desirable degree of teacher-control. In other words, creative education is a question of the delicate art of guidance. There is an attempt made in our elementary school curricula to stimulate improvement in the art of leadership on the part of the teacher; that is, leadership which results in harmonious participation of teacher and child in the educational activities of school. Dewey refers to this problem in the following words:

"When the emphasis falls upon having experiences that are educationally worthwhile, the center of gravity shifts from the personal factor, and is found withing the developing experience in which pupils and teachers alike participate. The teacher, because of greater maturity and wider knowledge, is the natural leader in the shared activity, and is naturally accepted as such..." 1

1

Dewey, John: The New Republic, Vol. LXIII, No. 814, July 9, 1930, pp. 204-206, (Quoted by Payne, op. cit., p. 415).

In so far as the teacher-pupil factor is concerned, it seems safe to state that skilful use of the enterprise-activity is the greatest single medium for joint participation.

Behind the activity-principle is the belief that adjustment of the child is best made through learning to participate co-operatively on his own account. In 1928, Finney wrote:

"We ought...to make every child feel that nothing is more natural and proper than for him to undertake creative work on his own account, without any self-consciousness as to his born genius, and with almost never any thought of publicity or a career..."¹

What Finney has expressed here on behalf of the arts, our elementary curricula uphold in all spheres of school activities.

¹ Finney, Ross L.: A Sociological Philosophy of Education, New York, MacMillan Co., 1928, p. 324.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

PART I

A study of educational theory permits few definite conclusions because of certain factors limiting the interpretation of the theory analysed. A prevalent confusion in the field of educational thought is the chief limiting factor in the estimation of the analyses presented in Part I. The following comments will call to mind the problems which the writer has presented:

(1) Modern educational authorities recognize the fact of rapid social change in recent years as the chief source of confusion concerning education in the minds of people generally. It is also the chief source of division in the field of educational theory. Education is now called upon to train for new technique of work, to interpret social and economic theories, and to serve as a background of understanding the present in terms of the past and the possible future. Integration has a broad meaning for the individual in society.

(2) Sociologically, education and growth are synonymous. This implies a broad view of education. Social control through education can be understood to advantage when education is conceived in this broad sense. It is essential, therefore, to recognize the educational influences of many agencies in a community, other than the school. This condition, however, does not diminish the importance of the

role of the school. The school, in the theory of the educational sociologist, is the chief and co-ordinating agency in the total education or growth.

(3) It is over the problems of education related to social progress that educationists--the Progressivists and Modern Realists--take chief issue. The two main points of issue are: (1) the role of the **teacher** in social change, and (2) the problem of controversial issues in relation to education. By studying the points of view represented by these schools of educational thought, it can be seen that compromise is not impossible. Experience has modified extreme views in both schools. The following words by John Dewey point educational controversialists to significant lines of thought:

"...those who are looking ahead to a new movement in education, adapted to the existing need of a new social order, should think in terms of Education itself rather than in terms of some 'ism about education, even such an 'ism as 'progressivism.' For in spite of itself any movement that thinks of itself in terms of an 'ism becomes so involved in reaction against other 'isms that it is unwittingly controlled by them. For it then forms its principles by reaction against them instead of by a comprehensive constructive survey of actual needs, problems, and possibilities..."¹

(4) Fears for the safety of democracy are increased by the crises of to-day. In regard for this concern, two essentials were outlined; namely, the necessity to define democracy in its fullest sense, and to teach democracy by practice as well as by precept. It is recognized by authorities that school is a forceful opinion-forming agency.

¹

Experience and Education, op.cit., p.vii.

The more democratic education becomes the more it is a force in social intelligence.

(5) In relation to the social services the school is essential in the co-ordination of facilities and a source of knowledge of these facilities. The school gives to the agencies of social service their most general picture of the individuals served. The social services in turn have for their main objective the maintenance of the physical and mental health of individuals rather than the restoration of health that has been lost. Branches of the social services have been organized which work in close co-operation with the school. A weakness of the social services is that they are inadequately organized in poorer districts and communities. Administration of social services has become more effective through centralized organization.

PART II

The chief factor limiting conclusions which can be drawn from a study of educational theory represented in the provincial curricula, is the manner in which the structures of these curricula are based upon formerly existing sources. Prominent among these sources are United States Yearbooks and the British Hadow Reports. Sandiford has indicated that the greatest outside sources for Canadian educational theory is the American Educators. "This statement is made despite the fact that Ontario declares that its programme of studies is based on the findings of the Hadow Reports."¹

¹
The School, February, 1938, op.cit., p.475.

Because the theory expressed in the elementary school curricula of Canada is derived from secondary sources, the writer finds it difficult to conclude that certain expressions of progressivism^{ism} in their philosophies contain full and practical significance when interpreted in the schools.

(1) The pattern followed through Part I can be traced in the philosophy of the school curricula. Cognizance is taken of the problems of modern social change, and the importance of adjustment of the individual to his environment is stressed. In the curricula reference is made to the problem of assimilation of modern culture and folk culture; the latter as much of importance in the development of personality as the regular subjects of study. Further, it is recommended that education in the elementary school should lay the foundations of democratic living. Regarding the latter point the spirit of the curricula is that the school "must seek to lead the child to choose and accept as his own those ideals of conduct and endeavour which a Christian and democratic society approves."¹ Regarding the position of the school and the social order, the Canadian curricula, on the whole, present a more conservative philosophy than is expressed by the exponents of the Progressive movement.

Finally, the curricula stress means by which the facilities of education can promote and co-ordinate the social services. Modern education is thought of as the experiences which develop the whole organism and whole personality. Health is both physical and mental and child welfare is thought of as a prerequisite to education. The Canadian curricula appear to be advanced in this field.

(2.) It can be concluded that elementary education in Canada has a fundamental sociological background in theory. It would seem that certain phases of this background lack boldness. On the whole, however, its methods, aims, and general philosophy are in harmony with the definition and function of educational sociology presented in the Introduction. Practices recommended in the theory of the elementary school curricula which illustrate the sociological background are represented in the following list of statements:

- (1) The class should be organized for co-operation in living and learning.
- (2) Work in school should be organized in meaningful units.
- (3) The daily programme should be planned and systematic, yet flexible.
- (4) The total environment should be utilized by the teacher and pupils in educational activities.
- (5) Educational activities should be planned to utilize latent creative abilities of the children.
- (6) The aim of discipline should be to develop intelligent self-control on the part of the children.
- (7) The needs of atypical children must be met.
- (8) The role of the teacher as a leader in the modern elementary school is increasingly great. ²

1

Hockett, John A. and Jacobson, E.W. Modern Practices in the Elementary Schools, New York, Ginn and Co., 1938, p. 199

2

Ibid., p. 335.

It is the emphasis placed upon these recommendations rather than their mere statement which makes them significant in modern educational theory. Likewise it is the emphasis placed upon many of them which marks the modern spirit in the elementary school curricula of Canada. A single illustration will indicate this point. It has been found that, in practice, units and enterprises have been interpreted superficially by teachers. The following statement from the British Columbia Programme exposes this misconception:

"Another misconception is that an activity is an addendum to a unit, a sort of sweet coming at the end of a full-course dinner. When this erroneous view is held, a unit is taught in the traditional fashion, as a body of content to be learned, retained and reproduced in tests and examinations. This task accomplished, an effort is made to perform the activities suggested in the Programme of Studies. The complaint is then made that after the unit has been taught there isn't enough time remaining to do all the activities.

"It should be understood that learning is achieved through the activities. The class and the teacher may think of much better activities than those suggested in the programme of studies." ¹

(3) The concept of integration is recognized in the Canadian curricula, there being a variety of suggestions meant to stimulate the integrative process in the children's activities. Integration of school activities with those of the home and community are also recommended. This is particularly true of suggested activities for primary grades.

¹ British Columbia, op. cit., p. 18.

It is possible that misconceptions concerning integration might also occur in the minds of teachers. The following statement by a teacher and supervisor of art pertains to such a possible misconception. It is quoted below for its critical value:

"The concept of integration, excellent in itself, could lead to disintegrating practices. These might very possibly arise through the integrated programme--the device which is often used to maintain the child's unity of personality at the normal level. The integrated programme does not guarantee integrative teaching. Art teaching could cause considerable harm even as a part of such a programme. Should the art work in which the children occupy themselves not challenge the capacities of each child to the fullest, should the great range of activities which may be included in the word art taken in its fullest sense not be fully exploited (as in the case of the class which gives too much attention to, say illustration), should the class employ itself in construction only replicas of fort and river systems and the like activities which demand little account of expression through significant form, the children might be suffering from a disintegrative procedure...."

(4) The elementary school programmes are designed to lead to the socialization of children as well as to the development of individuality. It cannot be concluded that the processes of this double function are anything but complementary. The following conclusion of Sir Percy Munn is appropriate in this case:

"...We conclude, then, that the idea that the main function of the school is to socialize its pupils in no way contradicts the view that its true aim is to cultivate individuality..." 2

(5) The elementary school curricula of Canada are designed to stimulate interests and attitudes on the part of children which will affect in a positive manner the use they make of

¹ Gaitskell, Dudley C.: "Art and Integrative Teaching", The Teacher, April, 1942, p. 381.

² Education: Its Data and First Principles, London, Edward Arnold and Co., 1930, 1937, p.229

educational agencies outside the school. Through the teaching of music, literature and art, and through general guidance it is intended that the foundations be laid for the improvement of children's preferences in the out-of-school fields, such as, radio listening, attendance at picture shows, and recreational activities.

In their present form the curricula make no direct attack upon this problem of cultural development. The attack is indirect only in that no specific programmes in this field are proposed in the programmes. It can be assumed that this problem is taken by our curriculum-makers to be one for the home and the community rather than for the school.

(6) For more adequate programmes of study having firmer sociological background the following recommendations are submitted:

1. That greater clarity be attained in the field of integration.
 2. That the formulation of programmes of study be made more dependent upon local and community experiment and research.
 3. That more clarity and boldness be expressed regarding the modern status of the activity principle.
 4. That organizations set up for the purpose of curriculum revision be made to function more continuously.
-

APPENDIX I

SUMMARY OF A PSYCHIATRIST'S VERBAL REPORT
AT A CLASS CONFERENCE

1. The boy is in fairly good physical condition, generally speaking; His vision is slightly defective (6:10). Eyes should be examined. He has venereal disease but all that can be done is being done through the clinic.
2. He has a mental age of 7:5. He reads rather slowly but not below the Grade I standard, in view of the fact that he falls in the low-average group.
3. The boy steals and in this regard is growing steadily worse. Both he and his mother attribute this habit (of stealing) to the influence of other boys. The mother speaks of this in the presence of the boy. Both mother and son have developed this attitude so consistently that the boy has become a master at rationalization.
4. Psychologists list more than a hundred causes for juvenile stealing. The one most likely to be operative in this case is that of a desire (conscious or unconscious) on the part of the boy to find a recompense for his unpopularity among other children. A second cause is hero-worship. His mother says that the influence is that of other boys. "The chief older boy in this case would seem to be the father."
5. The boy's life is built on a background of fear. The stimulation of fear has been the mother's chief means of discipline. Beating has been resorted to. Tales of fearful things that would happen in case of disobedience have also been used.
6. Under the present circumstances, no constructive help which the school might give would be of any avail. It is strongly recommended that a more complete picture of the family be obtained. Various tests of the father and mother would likely be of assistance in discovering a means of reconstructing the boy's character.
7. It would appear that a complete change of environment would be essential to reconstructive work.
8. Present at the conference were: Dr. Crease, Dr. Watson, psychologist, the school nurse, assistant nurse, two or three social service workers, Mr. McKay of the Juvenile Court, the teacher.

(The psychiatrist in charge of the examination expressed the belief that, in his experience, there had never been a more serious case study to be recorded.)

Name.....Date of Birth....., Referred to:
Day Mo. Yr.
Address.....Date of first entering any school.....
Schools attended.....
Present grade.....Grades repeated.....No. of grades
accelerated.....Absences: Extent of.....
Reasons for.....
Standing this term with comments about achievement in earlier
grades.....
Special abilities.....
Special disabilities.....
Interests or hobbies.....
.....
Date.....Teacher's Signature.....
School.....Principal's Initials.....
Date and results.....
Intelligence tests.....
Standardized achievement tests.....
Attitude toward authority.....
Participation in activities of own age group.....
Reaction to success and failure.....
Difficulties in behaviour.....
Problem from teacher's point of view.....
.....

APPENDIX II-DIAGRAMS

DIAGRAM I

EXPANDING TOPICS IN HEALTH

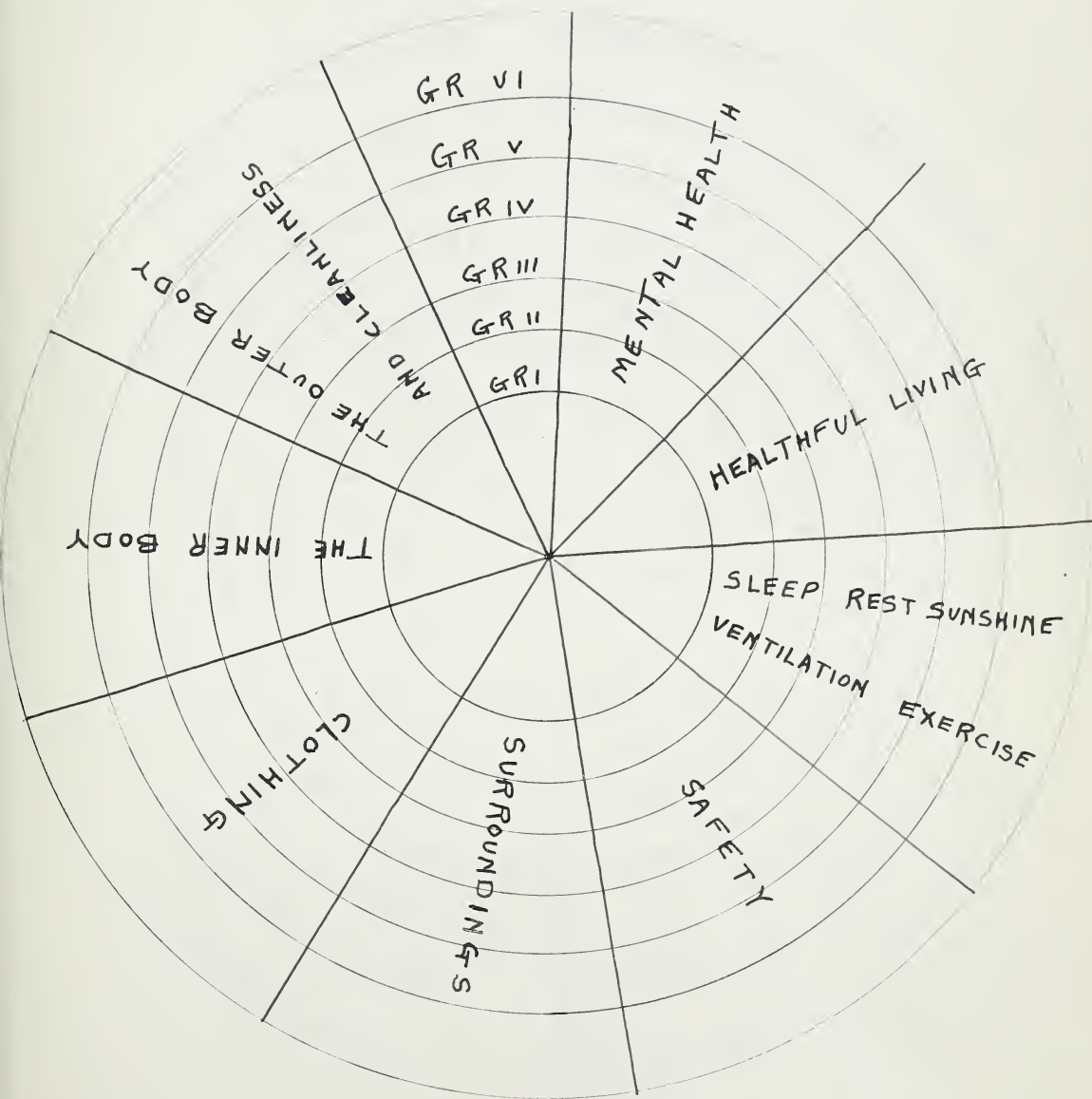
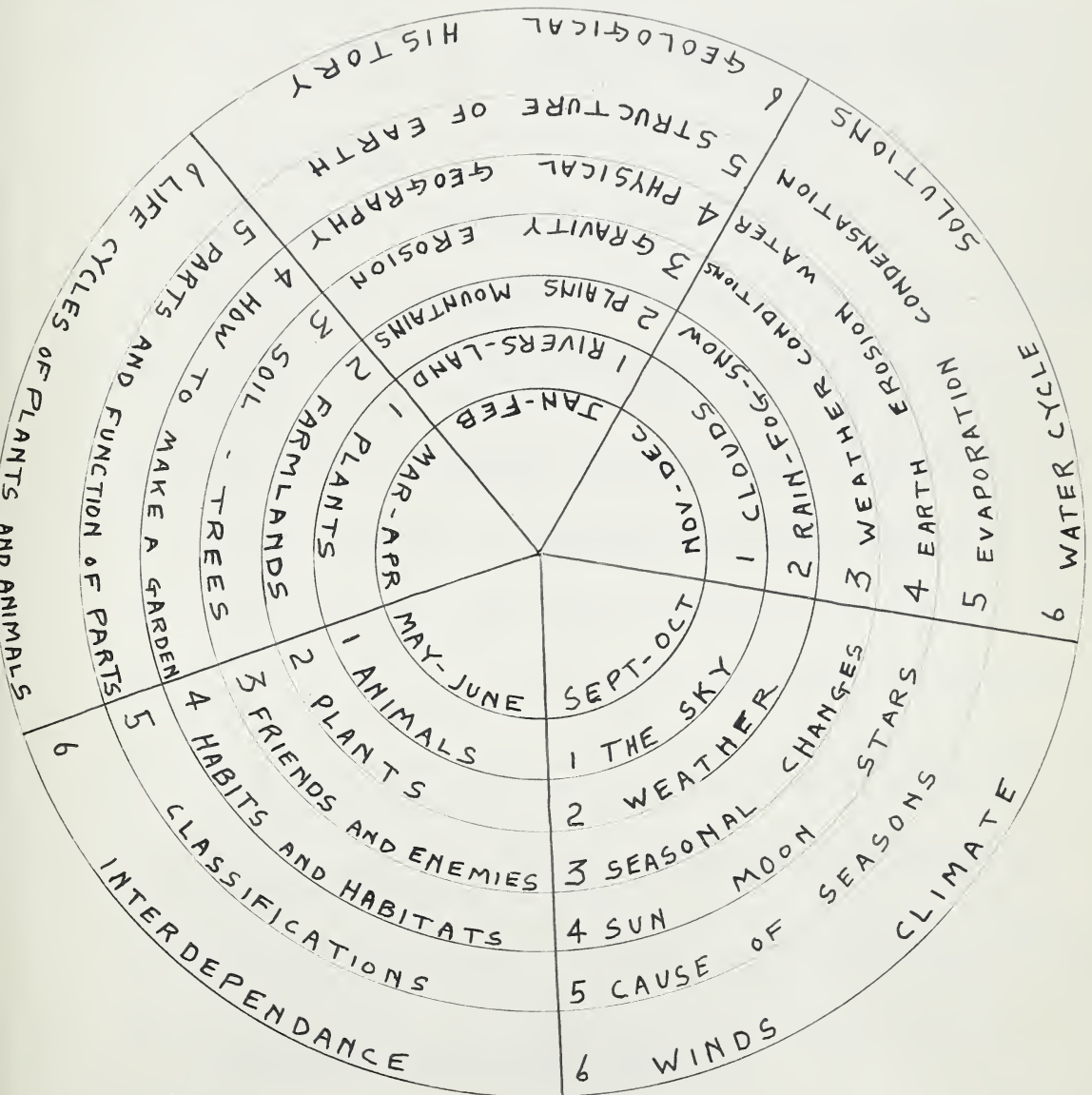


DIAGRAM 11

DATA FROM TOPICS IN ELEMENTARY SCIENCE

1



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